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1

# INDIAN PALEOGRAPHY

BY

JOHANN GEORG BÜHLER.

# EDITED

AS AN APPENDIX TO

# THE INDIAN ANTIQUARY,

VOL. XXXIII, 1904,

BY

JOHN FAITHFULL FLEET,
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# INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

PROFESSOR BÜHLER'S Indische Palaeographie, consisting of 96 pages of letter-press, with a portfolio of 9 plates of alphabetical characters and numerals and 8 tables of explanatory transliteration of them, was published in 1896 as Part 11 of Vol. I. of Dr. Karl J. Trübner's "Grundriss der Indo-Arischen Philologie und Altertumskunde," or "Encyclopædia of Indo-Aryan Research," which was planned and started by Professor Bühler himself, and was superintended by him up to the time of his death, in April, 1898.

There was always the intention of issuing the letter-press of the work in English also. The English version was made by Professor Bühler. And his manuscript of it was on its way to the Press at the time of his death. Steps were taken towards having it printed and published under the direction of Professor Kielhorn, who succeeded to the editorial management of the Grundriss. At that time, however, owing partly to the great interruption of business in India caused by the plague, partly to the manner in which the manuscript was written, and partly to a natural difficulty in the way of doing what had been contemplated, namely, of issuing the English version in such a form as to resemble the German original exactly in type and in arrangement page by page, the preparation for publication could not be taken far, and eventually had to be abandoned.

Feeling, myself, the want of the English version, and knowing that there must be others placed in the same position, in 1902 I made some inquiries and proposals about it. The result, with the consent and help of Professor Kielhorn, was a generous public-spirited response by Dr. Trübner, who, after consultation with Mrs. Bühler, agreed to transfer the copyright of the English version on practically nominal terms, subject to certain conditions as to the method of publication. Dr. Trübner's terms and conditions were accepted in a similar spirit by Colonel Sir Richard Temple, the proprietor of the "Indian Antiquary." And thus it came to me to take the work through the Press, and to arrange the issue of it in its present form as an Appendix to the "Indian Antiquary," Vol. XXXIII, 1904.

As far as the commencement of the second paragraph of § 16, A, on page 33, the English version has been produced from an advanced proof of 1900, prepared in the circumstances indicated in paragraph 2 above, and revised by Professor Kielhorn. From that point onwards, it has been done from

Professor Bühler's manuscript, written by himself. In order, however, to set the printers fairly at work, it was necessary, because of the very numerous and sometimes rather perplexing abbreviations to which Professor Bühler had had recourse, to furnish them with a fair copy. The copy was, of course, closely compared by me with the original manuscript. And it is hoped that no mistakes have been introduced, in interpreting any of the abbreviations in passages which are not in the German original.

A perusal of a very few pages of the English work, thus issued, will suffice to shew that it is not altogether a literal rendering of the German original. It is, therefore, sent forth as an English version, not as an actual translation. At the same time, the English version does not in any way supersede the German original. In the first place, as the stones were not preserved, it has not been practicable to issue with the English version the plates and tables which form so important a part of the whole work; however, there is available, for separate purchase, a limited number of copies of the plates and tables, printed off in excess of the number required for issue with the German original. In the second place, in writing his English version, Professor Buhler made here and there certain deviations, sometimes by insertion, sometimes by omission, from the German original. But these deviations, made chiefly in connection with the second edition, published in 1898, of his Indian Studies, No. III, on The Origin of the Indian Brāhma Alphabet, are in points of detail, and do not in any way amount to a revised edition of his Indische Palaeographie.1 The German original is still the text-book, as much as is the English version. The latter is for the benefit of those, interested in any way whatsoever in the subject, who are not able to utilise the German text.

This work of Professor Bühler has brought to a climax, for the present, the palæographic line of Indian research. And it would be impossible to speak in too high terms of the manner in which he has handled the subject, and of the

<sup>1</sup> A final paragraph on page 96 of the German work mentions "some recent publications, amongst them Dr. Grierson's examination of the Gayā alphabet of the stone-masons," which could not be considered then, but were to be noticed in the second edition of Indian Studies, No. III. A treatment of them in that way explains the omission of that final paragraph in Professor Bühler's English manuscript. And it also, no doubt, accounts for the omission of the Brāhma character for the guttural nasal,  $\dot{n}$ , in line 14 of col. VI. of the table on page 11, as compared with the same table on page 12 of the German text, and for the introduction of an inset illustration of that character in an additional remark made on page 35, under § 16, C, (12), in connection with which there is to be taken an observation made on page 14, under § 4, B, (4), (e). In a reference to the Gayā alphabet on page 29, in line 5 from the bottom, for na read na.

value of the results which he has placed before us. In the palæographic line, however, as also in the historical line, on which it is largely dependent, and, in fact, in every line of Indian research, we are steadily accumulating more facts and better materials, and making substantial progress, every year. I venture, therefore, to draw attention to a few details, which already might now be treated, or at least considered, from other points of view.

A notable point, regarding which I differ from the opinions of Professor Bühler as expressed in this work, is that of both the relative order and also the actual dates of the varieties of the Kharōshṭhī alphabet, indicated on page 25 under § 10, (3) and (4), which are found in the epigraphic records and on the coins of — (following the order in which, in my opinion, they should properly be placed) — Kanishka and Huvishka, 'Suḍasa-'Soḍāsa and Patika, and Gondophernēs. Kanishka certainly founded the Mālava-Vikrama era, commencing B. C. 58. And in that era there are certainly dated, in addition to records of the times of him and his direct successors, the dated records of the times of 'Suḍasa-'Soḍāsa, Patika, and Gondophernēs, and of Vāsudēva, who was a contemporary of Gondophernēs.<sup>2</sup>

A similar remark applies to the order and dates of the varieties of the Brāhma or Brāhmī alphabet, indicated on page 32, under § 15, (8, 9), from records of the times of Kanishka, Huvishka, 'Suḍasa-'Soḍāsa, and Vāsudēva.

As regards the nomenclature of those same varieties of the Kharōshṭhī alphabet, it is now certain that it is erroneous to describe one of them, mentioned there and discussed on page 27 f., as a 'Saka variety. 'Suḍasa-'Soḍāsa and Patika were not 'Sakas, or Sakas, if that should be the correct expression according to the original form of the name.3 None of the Sakas, 'Sakas, ever played a leading historical part in Northern India.

In respect of the Eran coin, mentioned first on page 8, which presents a reversed Brāhmī legend running from right to left, we must not lose sight of the possibility that the explanation is to be found, as has been suggested by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See J.RAS. 1905, 232 ff. Regarding Vāsashka, Vāsushka, whom it has not been necessary to mention by name above, see *ibid*. 357 f.

It may be observed here that on page 40, line 7 from the bottom, in the words "or of the 4th century of the Seleucid era," and in the corresponding place on page 41, line 10, of the German text, there must be a slip of the pen. The alternative proposed initial date of Kanishka which Professor Bühler had in view, is certainly A. D. 89. And in that year there began the Seleucidan year 401; that is, the first year of the fifth (not fourth) century of that era.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For the real meaning of the inscription P. on the Mathurā lion-capital, which has been supposed to mark them as Sakas, i. e. Sakas, see J.RAS. 1904, 703 ff., and 1905, 154 ff.

Professor Hultzsch in the "Indian Antiquary," Vol. XXVI, p. 336, in a mistake of the engraver of the die, who, like the die-sinker in the case of a certain coin of Hōlkar of the last century, may have forgotten that he ought to reverse the legend on the die itself. We have one instance of such remissness in ancient times in a coin of Rajula-Rājuvūla, the reverse of which presents a monogram, formed of the Greek letters E and Y, facing in the wrong direction; see Professor Gardner's Catalogue of the Coins of the Greek and Scythic Kings of Bactria and India, p. 67, No. 5. And we have another in the legend on a bronze stamp for making seals, where the engraver omitted to reverse the syllable  $\hat{sri}$ ; see J.RAS. 1901, 98, plate, No. 9.

On page 67, under § 29, B, (2), there is a statement about the strongly cursive Kanarese kh, which is calculated to be misleading, and on the strength of which some erroneous assertions have already been made.<sup>4</sup>

In the plates and tables there are some selections that might have been avoided, and some incorrect details, which are due to two causes: partly to the fact, the explanation of which has been indicated in some remarks made by me in the "Epigraphia Indica," Vol. VI, p. 80, that, owing to the nature of the only available materials, the plates have sometimes been based upon reproductions of original records which are not actual facsimiles; partly to the fact, which we learn from the Concluding Remarks on page 102, that some of the details of the plates were not selected and filled in by Professor Bühler himself.

And in any revision of the work there would have to be added, in connection with § 20, D, on page 44, a notice of the more recently discovered peculiar variety of the southern alphabet which is illustrated in the Mayidavōlu plates of the Pallava king 'Siva-Skandavarman and the Koṇḍamudi plates of Jayavarman, edited by Professor Hultzsch in the "Epigraphia Indica," Vol. VI, pp. 84 ff., 315 ff.

<sup>4</sup> See, for the present, my remarks about them in EI. 6, 77 ff.

<sup>5</sup> For three instances of incorrect details, see some remarks by Professor Kielhorn, in EI. 8, 38, note 1, below the introduction to his edition of the Junagadh inscription, or Girnar Praéasti, of Rudradaman.

As instances of the other kind, I may mention the following. Col. IV. of plate VIII. is from a reproduction (IA. 13, 186), which is not an actual facsimile, of a record the authenticity of which is open to question. And col. VII. of the same plate is mostly from a lithograph (IA. 6, 138) which was made, at a time when our methods of dealing with the original records were still decidedly primitive, from a plain uninked estampage, made by myself, the ground of which was painted in by my own hand, with results which cannot exactly be taken as furnishing a thoroughly typical illustration of the Western Chālukya alphabet of the eleventh century A. D.

It would, however, have been contrary to the spirit of the arrangement with Dr. Trübner, to introduce any comments and additions of my own, either in the text or in footnotes. And I do not find it convenient or appropriate to present them here, beyond the extent of the indications given above. Anything of that kind must be left for other occasions.

My editorial functions in the issue of this English version of Professor Bühler's work have thus been confined to details of a formal kind: chiefly in the matter of giving more prominence to the titlings of the sections and the divisions of them; in transferring to a more convenient position, as separated footnotes at the bottom of the pages to which they belong, the notes which in the German original stand massed together at the end of each section; 6 and in marking, by figures in square brackets in thick type, the commencement of each page of the German original, as closely as has been found convenient. Following, however, an example set by Professor Bühler himself in his manuscript, I have gone somewhat further still in breaking up some of the very long paragraphs of the original. Following his lead in another direction also, I have endeavoured to present everywhere the correct spelling, as far as it can be ascertained, of all the place-names which occur in the work; but, in conformity with his practice in this work, without discriminating between the long and the short forms of e and o. And I have corrected a few obvious mistakes; for instance, under § 29, A, in line 18 on page 66, I have substituted "Bādāmi" for the "Aihole" (properly Aihole) of the German original and of the manuscript translation.

In § 29, page 65 ff., and anywhere else where the word may occur, I have taken the liberty of substituting the word "Kanarese" for the "Kāṇara" of the German original and of the manuscript translation; and similarly, on page 46, line 4, and page 51, lines 21, 27 f., I have substituted "the Kanarese country" for the "Kāṇara" of the original and of the manuscript. The form "Kāṇara," with the lingual n, is nothing but an imaginative advance upon the official figment "Kānara," with the dental n, for which, itself, there is no basis in the Kanarese language, nor any necessity. I had thought at first of using, like the late Rev. Dr. Kittel and some other writers, the original vernacular word "Kannada,"—the source of our conventional "Canara, Kanara," which, however, do not mean the whole of the Kanarese country. And that word, which denotes both the country and its language and also their alphabetical characters,

<sup>6</sup> In doing this, I have corrected a few wrong references which came to notice, and have added a very few new references which seemed likely to be of use.

would have been appropriate enough. But I decided eventually on "Kanarese:" partly because, though this term, also, is conventional, it is so well-established, familiar, and definitive; and partly because it was practically used, alongside of the word "Kāṇara," by Professor Bühler himself, in the "Kanaresische" and "Altkanaresische" of the original German work (e. g., page 66, lines 4, 6), and in the "Canarese" and "Old Canarese" of corresponding passages in his English version.

Except, however, in such details as the above, and in the abolition of the inconvenient abbreviations of which mention has been made on page 2 above, the English version is simply a reproduction of Professor Bühler's manuscript.

In bringing this somewhat intricate work to a successful issue, I have been greatly indebted to the zeal and ability of Mr. J. S. Foghill, the Head Reader of the Bombay Education Society's Press. But for the extreme care with which he disposed of the first rough proofs before any proof was sent out for revision by me, I should certainly not have been able to take the work through, as has actually been done, on only one proof and a revise of it.

J. F. FLEET.

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Concluding Remarks.

#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

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AR or As. Res.
                     Asiatic Researches.
B.ASRSI ...
                     Burgess, Archeological Survey Reports, Southern India.
B.ASRWI...
                     Burgess, Archeological Survey Reports, Western India.
B.ESIP
                     BURNELL, Elements of South-Indian Palæography, 2nd ed.
                •••
B.IS
                    BUHLER, Indian Studies.
                    Babylonian and Oriental Record.
BOR
                     BOTHLINGE and ROTH, Sanskrit-Wörterbuch.
BRW
BW
                     Bothlingk, Sanskrit-Wörterbuch in kürzerer Fassung.
                ...
          ...
C.ASR
                     CUNNINGHAM, Archæological Survey Reports.
                •••
C.CAI
                     CUNNINGHAM, Coins of Ancient India.
C.CIS
                    CUNNINGHAM, Coins of the Indo-Scythians.
C.CMI
                     CUNNINGHAM, Coins of Mediæval India.
                    CUNNINGHAM, Inscriptions of Aśoka, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum,
C.IA (CII. 1)
                        Vol. I.
C.MG
                    Cunningham, Mahābodhi-Gayā; i. e., Mahabodhi or the Great Buddhist
                       Temple under the Bodhi Tree at Buddha-Gaya.
D.WA
                     Denkschriften der Wiener Akademie.
EI ...
                     Epigraphia Indica.
Ep. Carn.
                    Epigraphia Carnatica, ed. RICE.
E.TSA
                    EUTING, Tabula Scripturae Aramaicae.
F.GI (CII. 3)
                    FLEET, Gapta Inscriptions, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. 111.
IA ...
                     Indian Antiquary.
                    Inscriptions de Piyadasi, SENART.
IP ...
J
                     The Jātaka, ed. FAUSBÖLL.
   •••
JA ...
                     Journal Asiatique.
          ...
                 ...
                     Journal, American Oriental Society.
J.AOS
                     Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal.
J.ASB
                     Journal, Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
J.BBRAS
                     Journal, Royal Asiatic Society.
J.RAS
                 ٠..
                     LASSEN, Indische Altertumskunde, 2nd ed.
L.IA
                 . . .
                     Mahābhāṣya, ed. Kielhorn.
MBh
                 ...
          . . .
                     MAX MÜLLER, History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature.
M.M.HASL
                     MAX MÜLLER, Rgveda-Samhitā with Sāyana's Commentary, 2nd ed.
M.M.RV2 ...
                     PRINSEP'S Indian Antiquities, ed. THOMAS.
P.IA
                 •••
                     Sacred Books of the East.
SBE
                 ...
SB.WA
                     Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie.
                 . . .
                     South-Indian Inscriptions, ed. HULTZSCH.
SII ...
                 •••
S.IP
                     Senart, Inscriptions de Piyadasi.
          ...
                     SENART, Notes d'Epigraphie Indienne.
S.NEI
                 . . .
W.AA
                     H. H. Wilson, Ariana Antiqua.
                     WEBER, Indische Streifen.
W.Ind.Str.
                     WEBER, Indische Studien.
W.IS
                     Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes; i.e., the Vienna
WZKM
                        Oriental Journal.
                     Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.
ZDMG
```

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### CORRECTIONS AND REMARKS.

Page 24, line 7 from the bottom; read JA. 1888, II, 230.

- ,, 25, line 5; Kaldawa seems to be a mistake for Kaldarra (WZKM. 10, 327) or Kaladara Nadi (J.RAS. 1903, 14).
- ,, line 19; da seems to be a mistake (of the original) for dha.
- ,, 29, line 5 from the bottom; for na, read na.
- " 32, line 5, and in some subsequent places; for Ghasundi, read Ghasundi.
- " line 2 of the notes, and page 41, § 20, A; for another reproduction of the Girnār Praśasti, or Junāgadh inscription, of the time of Rudradāman, which is the basis of col. VI. of plate III, see, now, EI. 8, 44.
- 40, line 9; for Sudasa, read Sudasa.
- " line 7 from the bottom; regarding the words "or of the 4th century of the Seleucid era," see Introductory Note, p. 3, note 2.
- ,, 61, note 1; for another reproduction of the Vakkalēri plates of A. D. 757, which are the basis of col. XVI. of plate VII, see, now, EI. 5, 202.
- " 64, note 10, end; read Santivarman (see, now, Ep. Carn. 7, Sk. 176, for one reproduction of this record, and EI. 8, 32, for another).
- 69, line 9; it may be remarked that the original identification of Kalinganagara with Kalingapattanam (Kalingapatam), on the coast, has been superseded; the ancient city is represented by the site now covered by the villages Mukhalingam and Nagarakatakam and the ruins between them, inland in the Ganjam district; see, e. g., EI. 4, 187 f.
- 81, line 8 from the bottom; the German original (p. 77, line 35) has "50, 60, 70;" in his English manuscript, Professor Bühler wrote "50, 60, 70," and then corrected the 50 into 10.
- " 86, bottom; it may be remarked that this system of numeral notation is commonly called the Kaṭapayādi system, from the initial consonants of the four lines.

# INDIAN ANTIQUARY,

# A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH

TN

ARCHÆOLOGY, EPIGRAPHY, ETHNOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, FOLKLORE, LANGUAGES, LITERATURE, NUMISMATICS, PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION, &c., &c.

#### EDITED BY

### SIR RICHARD CARNAC TEMPLE, BART., C.I.E.,

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PROFESSOR BÜHLME'S INDIAN PALEOGRAPHY; edited by J. F. FLEET.

# THE INDIAN ANTIQUARY,

# A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH.

# VOLUME XXXIII. — 1904.

# JANGNĀMAH OF SAYYAD 'ĀLIM 'ALĪ KHĀN, A HINDI POEM BY SŪDISHT.

BY WILLIAM IRVINE, LATE OF THE BENGAL CIVIL SERVICE.

THE original manuscript from which my copy of this work was made, was found a year or two ago by my agent, Maulvī 'Abd-ul-'Azīz, in the library of the Mahārājah of Benares at Rāmnagar, access to which had been obtained for him through the kind offices of Leslie Porter, Esq., C.S., Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General.

The book in question is in the Persian character. From the nature of the language, 'Abd-ul-'Azīz inferred a Panjābī origin. If this be correct, possibly the author was a native of the Upper Dūābah where the Bārhah Sayyads live; and the language there used would seem to a down-country man little, if at all, distinguishable from the Hindī of the Eastern Panjāb. The liberal use of Persian and Arabic, with the absence of Hindū imagery, suggests that the author, in spite of his Hindū appellation (Sūdishṭ), was probably a Muhammadan. When writing in the vernacular, Muhammadans often adopted a Hindū name as their takhalluṣ, or pen-name. The abrupt way in which the poem opens, shows that some introductory lines have been lost.

For my own part, I am inclined to think that the author was a Muhammadan of the Dakhin, or one who had long lived there. The scene is in the Dakhin; and in lines 33, 112, and 113 we have the curious contraction  $b\bar{a}j$  for ba-juz, which is certainly not known in Northern India, and, according to J. T. Platts (Dictionary, p. 118), is a word used by the poet Wali, and peculiar to Southern India. Mahrattah scholars may possibly detect forms borrowed from that dialect. The name of Sūdisht does not appear in Grierson's Modern Vernacular Literature of Hindustan (Calcutta, 1889).

From internal evidence I believe that the poem is a contemporary effusion; and as Wali was then alive, it is not impossible that he was the writer. He lived in the Dakhin at Aurangābād or Burhānpur, and was in Dihlî in the year 1132 H. (1719-20) — see J. F. Blumhardt's Catalogue of Hindā and Hindūstānā Manuscripts in the British Museum, p. 5. The events recorded in the poem took place in 1132 H. (1720), and the few historical facts given in it are correct according to the prose chronicles. But the work is more a lament on the fate of young 'Alim 'Alī Khān, than

a record of events, which are not given in any detail. As it seems to me, the greater number of the lines are sweet and musical, many very striking, and some most pathetic.

#### Transliteration of Text.

#### Translation.

# [Opening lines are wanting.]

"Kih: Le kar Nigāmul-mulk fauj sāth "Chal ātā hai sīdhā Dakhin kī jo bāt "Tūman sang jang, hoshyārī karo, "Lajāī kī begī tayārī karo." 5 Sūnā aur kīyā dil men apnī 'ajab: "Larāî haman sāth kyā-hī sabab?" So īse mon āko khabar yūn debā Kıh ütarā Nizāmu-l-mulk Narbadā. Hūī bāt Sayyad pai taḥqīq jab, 10 Būlā bhej arkān-i-daulat kon tab; Nazar jahāņ tahāņ jā chadhāwanī lagī, Du'āyān ism nit dadhwānī lagī; Pakāne lagī har jins ke ta'ām, Khilā,īn lagī dam-ba-dam subh-o-shām. 15 Hāthī, ūnth, ghorī, taşadduq kī,e, Jo kuchh jag mon karnā, so un sabh ki,e, Taşadduq ütārī ütārī lage. Rūpai khwān bhar bhar ke wāran lage, Jahān lag qutb, ghaus, au pīr the, 20 Jahān lag walī khās, khabīr the, Jahān lag jo ko sāhib-i-hosh the, Zamānah kī āfat ke sarposh the, Jahān lag muqarrab the, dargāh ke,

25 Madad māng sakaliān soņ, kīnā suwāl, Jahān tak qalandar the, ahl-i-kamāl;

Jahān tak jo the khās is rāh ke,

"Maiņ farzand 'Alī kā, wa āl-i-rasūl,

"Karo arz merā tūm itnā qabūl;

"Pare hai mūjhe āj mushkil maḥāļ,

30 "Tumen mil-ke sabh, mujh ko lenā nibhāl,

" Rakho lāj mardon ke maidān men,

"Achī jān jab tain merī jān men;

"Khudā bāj nā koi mūjhe yār hai,

" Use ke karam kā jo ādhār hai."

That: "Nizām-ul-Mulk with an army

"Is coming straight on the Dakhin road,

"He means to fight with thee, be on thy guard,

"Prepare forthwith for war."

He heard and wondered in his mind:

"To fight with me what can be the reason?"

Meanwhile they came with the news

That Nizām-ul-Mulk had crossed the Narbadā.

When the Sayyad had verified the fact,

Then sent he a summons to all his councillors;

Offerings to various places were presented,

Invocations to His Name were uttered unceasingly;

Food of every sort began to be prepared,

Men were fed every instant from morn to night.

Elephants, camels, horses, were given in alms,

Whatever sacrifice could be done that did he,.

Alms of every sort were presented.

Trays filled with rupees were held up before shrines,

Wherever there was a leader, a saint, a holy man, Wherever there was a noted friend of God, or learned one.

Wherever there was one possessed of understanding.

A coverer up of this age's calamities,

Wherever there was one connected with any shrine,

Wherever there was one specially noted in the Way.

Help was asked from all, the question was put, Wherever there was any recluse, of perfect qualities;

"I am a son of 'Alī, of the Prophet's race,

"Be pleased so far to accept my requests;

"This day there falls on me a desperate difficulty,

"All of you join together, find me a way of escape.

"I risk my reputation in the field of heroes,

"Unconquered while breathes a breath of life;

"Besides God there is none my friend,

"His mercy is my only staff and stay."

- 35 Būlā phir najūmī, kholā,ī najūm;
  - "Kaho, kyā hai yah ghulghalah, kyā hajūm,
  - "Kaho, din hai kaise, satārā hai kon,
  - " Fath kis kon hai, ur awārā hai kon,
  - " Ajhī kar sabh mil, mūjhe bol deo,
- 40 "Bhalā yā būrā, yak-ba-yak khol deo." Najūmī kahe hain khūsh-āmad kī bāt; Kahāņ 'ilm-i-kāmil inhon ke hāt?
  - "Nawāzūngā tūmanā, karūngā nihāl,
  - " Odhānungā tumanā du-shālā wa shāl."
- 45 Kahe sab najūmīyāņ: "Napat khair hai, "Satāre kī gardish kā tapak bahuter hai,
  - "Yaqin hai haman kon fath payoge,
  - "Fath pā-ke begī son phir āyoge." Pūchhā bāt, ba'ze faqīrān būlā;
  - Puchna bat, ba ze radiran bura;
- 50 "Tümhārī bhī is bāt mon kyā ṣalā?" Kahe tab faqirān-ne: "Sun līyo to āb,
  - "Shahr chhor-jāne mon, nahīn kuchh suwāb,
  - "Nah umarāo koī, ṣāhib-i-fauj, hai,
  - "Shitābī ke karnen men, kyā būjh hai,
- 55 "Navvī fauj, lashkar, navvā kul sipāh,
  - "Daghā-hī daghā hai, daghā khwāh-ma-khwāh."
  - $\overline{\mathbf{U}}$ the bol yārāṇ ke: "Sunte ho,  $\underline{\mathbf{Sh}}$ āh,
  - "Yūh kyā kām hai, tūmana deo salāh,
  - "Sīpāhī na janon īh, kul bāgh hain,
- 60 "Saff-i-jang men ag tain ik ag hain,
  - "Sakat kyā jo ko rū-ba-rū ho khaṛā,
    - "Kharā ho, to chariyon sen denge udā,
    - "Yih ūh fauj hai, fauj-i-dushman-shikan,
  - "Agar ho jama' Hind, agar sabh Dakhan,
- 65 "Shujā'at taiņ, gar zor-i bāzū karen,
  - "Pahārān achhen, to tarāzū karen,
  - "Karen tal upar, mar talwar son,
  - "Be kul fauj ho ran ke sardār koņ." Rahe Shāh tab, ho-ke andeshah-nāk;
- 70 "Tumhārā hai hāfiz wah zāt-i-pāk!
  - "Būrā dil men mat lenā is bāt kā,
  - "Bharosā nahīn ham kon is sāth kā;
  - "Fatḥ-hī-fatḥ, pun baḍā mār hai!
  - "'Azīzāņ! Tūmhārā khudā yār hai!"

- Next he sent for astrologers, the stars were read;
- "Say what is this uproar, what this crowd,
- ' Say how is the day, what is its star,
- "Who gains the victory, who is put to flight,
- "This day consult jointly and make your report,
- "Good or evil, unfold to me every detail."
- The astrologers said their words of flattery;
- When held they full knowledge in their hand?
- "Gifts will I shower on you, richly endow you,
- "Throw on your shoulders shawls, double and single."
- Spoke all the star-readers: "It is altogether well,
- "The stars in their courses have many throbbings,
- "We verily believe that victory will be yours,
- "Crowned with victory you will soon return."
- He asked questions from certain recluses he had called;
- "You, too, must say in this what is your advice." Then said the mendicants: "Listen, your Honour,
- "To quit the city is devoid of all profit,
- "There is no noble who has an army;
- "What wisdom is there in such haste?
- "Untried your army and troops, all are raw soldiers.
- "Deception upon deception, deception in every case."
- Out spoke his friends: "You hear, my lord!
- "What sort of action is this that these mencounsel?
- "These know not your fighters, every one a tiger,
- "In battle rank they rage as one great fire,
- "What force exists that dares to stand and face us,
- "If such appear, we will put it to flight with sticks.
- "Ours is such an army, an army of enemy-breakers,
- "Let Hind assemble, let the whole Dakhin come,
- "Then by our valour, wielding the strength of our right arm,
- "Should even mighty mountains weigh the scales,
- "They shall be turned upside down by our swordblows.
- "With part of your army you will win the battle."
- Then said the ruler, full of anxiety:
  "Your protector is that Lord All-pure,
- "Be not displeased at this saying,
- "Confidence I have not in them,
- "Be the end victory or not, still it is a big fight,
- "Dear companions, God is your friend!"

- 75 Kahe sun ke Nawāb main itnī bāt Kih: "Marnā o jīwanā hai sab Rabb ke hāth,
  - "Jo bāzī dī, hamanā koņ mil jāegā,
  - "Jī,e tak ūh dunyā moņ bachāega,
  - "Mūjhe 'ār-hī-'ār inkār hai,
- 80 "Kih taḥqīq marnā so yak bār hai!
  - "Karungā jo kuchh mujh son ho āwegā,
  - "Yıhī nāṇw dunyā moṇ rah jāegā."
    Andeshah so kul dil koṇ khālī kīyā,
    Nıkal meṇ kī begī, ūtāwalī kīyā,
- 85 Uthe beg begī son ghar men ga,e Adab son khare ho-ke mān so kahe Kih: "Tum mā, main farzand hon, lārkā,
  - "Badī māṇ kā aur badī piyār kā ;
  - "Suno tum, kıh Dillî bahü dür hai,
- 90 "Hamārā ism jag meņ mshhūr hai, "Hukm ho, to jā bāhar derā karūņ,
  - "Būrhānpū[r] lag ek pherā karūņ.
  - "Main potā hūn us Shāh yazdān kā,
  - "Hūn farzand Nūru-d-dīn 'Alī Khān kā
- 95 "Mūjhe baith rahnān badā nang hai,
  - "Agar āj Rustam sete jang hai.
  - "Hasenge mujh dekh Qutbu-l-mulk,
  - "'Dakhin meņ kyā thā Nizāmu-l-mulk,'
  - "Yih sun-ke karenge ta'jjab Nawāb,
- 100 "Kih farzand 'Alim 'Alī, kām-yāb,
  - " Darā jīū soņ, ur nikal nā sakā,
  - "Shujā'at kā nāmūs kūchh nā rakhā.
  - "Dunyā mon do-bārā kūchh ānā nahīn,
  - "Bah dunyā janam lag thakānā nahīņ,
- 105 "Agar hai ḥaiyātī, to phir āwenge,
  - "Fath ho, to mūkh ā-ke dikhlā denge;
  - "Apas dil men hamanā ūtāro na koī,
  - "Du'ā mon achhwant basāro na koi,
  - "Pakar hāth sompo Khudāwand ko,
- 110 "Raho 'aish, ārām, wa ānand soņ." Kahe mā neņ: "Maiņ kyūņ razā deūņ tūjhe,
  - "Dakhin men tere bāj hī kon mījhe,
  - "Khudā bāj ko tūjh kon sāthī nahīn,
- "Mūjhe maşlahat kuchho yıh bhātī nahīņ, 115 "Nanhā yā baḍā, ko tere sāth hai?
- "Tūṇ jātā hai laṛṇe, yah kyā bāt hai." Ba jadam-jad mā koṇ raẓī kīyā,
- Ba har ḥāl chalne ke rukhṣat līyā, Chhau suwārah ūs waqt Sayyad ke pās, 120 Sīpāhī o chelah o kull 'ām-o-khās,

- Having listened the Nawab resumed:
- "Death and life lie all in the hand of God,
- "What part he allots will fall to us,
- "While in the world he will preserve us,
- "I abhor disgrace or ignominy;
- "And of a truth, death comes only once!
- "I will do whatever I am capable of,
- "This renown will survive me in the world."
  Thus he thrust out all anxiety from his heart,
  Suddenly he issued forth in haste,

He rose and as quickly as he could went home, Reverently he stood and to his mother spake:

- "You are my mother, I am thy son, thy boy,
- "I respect you as mother and you love me;
- "Listen to me, Dilli is very far away,
- "Our name is in the world renowned,
- "If you permit, I will bring foith my tents,
- "As far as Burhanpur I will journey.
- "I am descended from that God-like Lord,
- "I am the son of Nur-ud-din 'Ali Khan,
- "For me to sit idle is a great disgrace,
- "Even if to-day the contest be against a Rustam:
- "Looking at me Qutb-ul-Mulk will scoff and say,
- "'What a mere nothing was Nizām-ul-Mulk in the Dakhin.'
- "Hearing this affair the Nawab will marvel,
- "That his son, 'Alim 'Ali, the fortunate,
- "Trembled in his heart and could not come forth,
- "His reputation for valour he could not maintain.
- "Twice over we cannot enter the world,
- "For life no reliance can be placed on this world:
- "If destined to live I will return,
- "If victorious, I will come to show my face;
- "Never in your heart look down on me,
- "Never in your prayers forget or overlook me,
- "Take me by the hand and confide me to the Lord,
- "May you live on in ease, comfort, and delight." His mother said: "Why should I grant consent,
- "For with me in the Dakhin who is there but thee.
- "Besides God whom is there to be your Helper?
- "This project is in no way agreeable to me,
- "Young or old, whom have you to follow you,
- "Yet you want to fight, what an idea is that?"
  With great effort he obtained his mother's consent,

In one way or another got leave to depart, State and retinue went with the Sayyad, Soldiers and slaves, servants private and public, Tawakkal kīyā, aur dil koṇ dīṭh:
"Main Sayyad hūṇ, ab kyā dikhâyūṇ so
pīṭh."

Būlāyā shitābī son diwan kon,

Kahā: "Ab likho khat Amīn Khān kon: -

- 125 "'Dakhin men tumen mard ho-ke mashhur,
  - "' Shitābī haman pās ānā zarūr,
  - "'Rafāqat soņ mil, jān-fishānī karo,
  - "' Jald ā,o aur mihrbānī karo,
  - "'Kıh yah waqt hai waqt-i-kam ka,
- 130 "'Tumharī shujā'at naug-o-nām kā; "'Jo kuchh tum kahoge, so hogā qabul, "'Hai shāhid hamārā Khudā aur Rasul.'" Chalnen lage jā-ba-jā thār thār, Rawānah kī,e qāṣidān ek bār,
- 135 Nigahdāsht kā khūb garmī kīyā, Jah ne jo māngā, so chah ūsko dīyā, Kaho jāe derā deo maidān moņ, Nazīk Maḥamdī Bāgh, unchāņ moņ. Athī bārwīņ (12) māh-i-Rajab kā chānd,
- 140 Chalā ghar taiņ, shamsher o baktar koņ bāndh:

Waise hoṇ ūh sardār sāriyāṇ mane Kih jyoṇ chānd hai kul satāriyāṇ mane; Naqāre, damāme, bajāte chale, Rūpī, asharfiyāṇ le luṭāwe chale,

- 145 Kiyā jāe-ke dere mon chār-ek maqām, Kare fiqr, tadbīr har subḥ-o-shām; Jahān lag the sardār, jodhān, balī, Bulā-kar kahā Sayyad 'Alim Alī Kih: "Tum ho sipāhī, main sardār hūn,
- 150 "Bhalā yā būrā sābh kā gham-khor rahūņ,
  - "Shahr chhor derā main bāhar kīyā,
    - "Tawakkal khudā-i-muştaffā par kīyā.
    - "Suno bāt, ik dil ke kahtā hūn main,
    - "Kih jis fikr mon gharq rahtā hūn main.
- 155 "Kahān Hind, Bārhā, kahān hai Dakhan,
  - "Kahān khwesh, qurbat, kahān hai haman,
  - "Kahān son, kahan son, kidhar son, kahān,
  - "Kih Bārhe son qismat le ā,ī yahān,
- "'Azīzāņ! Maiņ 'Ālim 'Alī Khān hūņ,
- 160 "Jawānī mon sakaliyān mon ba-jān hūn; "Jawānī jo kūchh dil mon gham nahīn mūjhe,
  - "Maran aur jīan kā wahm nahīn mūjhe,
  - " Mare jiū kon rahmat o shyābāsh hai,
  - " Jawānī meņ jīwanā badī ās hai,

Placing his hope on God, he braced his heart: "I am a Sayyad, how can I turn my back."

In haste he sent for his chief man, Said: "Write at once this letter to Amīn Khān:—

- "'In the Dakhin you are a man well-famed,
- " 'Without fail you must hasten here to me,
- " 'Come quickly and do me the favour
- "'To join my force, and spend your life-blood,
- " 'Verily this time is the time for deeds,
- "For your valour, your name and fame,
- " 'Whatever you demand shall be agreed to,
- " 'Be witness our God and his Prophet.'"

Then began to set out strings of men to all parts, Message-carriers were despatched forthwith, Recruiting went on most busily,

Whatever anyone asked that he got,

Was told to go and put up his tent in the plain Close to Muhamdī Bāgh, on the high ground. It was the twelfth of the moon Rajab

It was the twelfth of the moon Rajab.

He left his house clad in mail, his sword on hip;

Such amidst the throng was that leader
As is the moon amongst the stars.
Beating kettledrums, large and small, he marched,
Scattering gold and silver coin as he passed.
He went and rested some days in his tents,
Planned and consulted from morn to night.
Wherever there were leaders, brave and bold,
They were sent for, and told by Sayyad 'Alim 'Ali
Thus: "You are soldiers, I am the general,

- "Let good or ill befall, I share the cares of all;
- "I have quitted the city and put up my tents,
- "Relying upon God and His Chosen One.
- "Listen while I tell what is in my mind,
- "The matter which keeps me plunged in thought.
- "Where are Hind and the Barhah? Far from the Dakhin!
- "Where are my friends and relations, so far from me!
- "O where and O where, whither gone, and where!
- "For the Fates have brought me from Barhah
- "Friends! I am 'Alim 'Alī Khān,
- "In the morn of youth, with all my powers.
- "For the joys of youth in my heart I grieve not,
- "As to life and death, I have no illusions,
- "The soul after death receives mercy and praise,
- "The young man has great longing for life,

165 "Jīwan aur bhalā jab lakoņ lāj hai

"Wagarnah to kyā takht aur tāj hai,

"Jab lak hawāe yārān mere sāth mon,

"Achho waqt-i-jang sabh merī bāt mon,

"Jidhar ma'rkā ā paregā nadān,

170 " Udhar ek dil ho ke karnā nadān.

"Karo, mard ho, dil mon mardangi,

" Hai mashhūr mardon kī mardāngī.

" Hai Bārhe kā kul Hind mon neknām,

" Main mangtā nīyat, ābrū, subḥ-o-shām,

175 "Jo āyā hai so phir ūh mar jāegā,

"Nah kūchh sāth liyāyā, nah le-jāegā."

Khabar son maqāmān kī, mā mihrbān Taraphne lagā jīū aur sabh prān, Ga,ī shahr kī bāharī, jā milī,

180 Napat ārzū son lagāyā galī. Kahā mān kon: "Mā! Tūm se kahā pāūngā,

"Agar jag moņ, so bāz phir ā,ūngā,

"'Abas phir ke taşdî' kyūņ ā,ī tūmeņ,

"Phir āte hain begī shitābī hamen,

185 "Na kuchh dil mon tum be-qarari karo, "Shahr kī taraf ab suwārī karo." Kahī mā: "Nahīn chain dil mon mūjhe,

"Main dekhungī kis des, phir-kar, tūjhe, "Karūn kyā, şabr mūjh son ātā nahīn,

190 "Tere pāchhah kūchh mūjh kon bhātā nahīn.

"Ik ik din mūjhe hai ik ik sāl kā,

"Khudā kon khabar hai merī ḥāl kā,

"Nasīboņ moņ kyā hai, nahīņ kūchh khabar,

"Yah jiwanā ho rahe mūjhe jyūn zahr."

195 Būlā-kar sa-o-pā bade tol ke, Zar zar-kashī, sāf, bahū mol ke, Būlā,ī Lutf Khān, 'Umr Khān kon, Mirzā Mahamdī aur Mathi Khān kon, Jahan lak the sardarate, rū-shinas,

200 Būlā bhej-kar sabh ke, ā, en pās, Sar-o-pāe har yak kon dene lagī, Bajā liyā-ke taslīm, lene lage. Kahā ba'd-az-ān: "Sabh kon sügand hai

"Kih 'Alim 'Alī mūjh kon dilband hai,

205 "Namak kī shart hī bajā liyāoge, "To dil-sāchah phir martabā pāyoge.

> "Khudā tūm sabhon kon nigahbān hai, "Bade bast dunyā mon imān hai." Kī,e 'ahd sāriyāņ ne, sūgand khā,

210 Kih: "Mālik dil kā hamārā Khudā, "Jab lak jīw tan mon hai, o dam men dam, "Rajhenge hazūrī mon sābit-qadam.

"To live on is better while reputation lasts.

"That gone, what matters throne and crown!

"So long as the hearts of my friends are mine.

"In war-time all remain loyal to me,

"Finally wherever the strife and battle fall.

"There to the end with one heart they still strive.

"Be men and in your hearts resolve to be brave,

"By manly virtue a man gains renown.

"In all Hind is Barhah well esteemed,

"I pray for strength and honour all day long,

"All mortals here below are doomed to death,

"We brought nothing here and shall carry nothing away."

Hearing of these halts, his gracious mother Became restless in her heart and soul, She issued from the city, paid him a visit, With exceeding love took him to her arms. He said to his mother: "Mother, what can I say, "If still in this world, I will certainly return,

"Why uselessly do you again worry yourself,

"I shall come back at once, without delay,

"Allow no anxiety to enter your heart,

"Mount and return towards the city."

Spoke his mother: "My heart is not at rest,

"What land shall I ever see, where you return,

"What shall I do, I cannot acquire patience,

"With you absent, there can be no pleasure for me.

"Each single day to me is like a year,.

"God alone can know what is in my heart,

"What may be my lot I know not at all,

"This life I lead is to me like poison." She called for robes of great weight, Of gold brocade, lovely, of great price, She sent for Lutf Khān and 'Umr Khān, For Mirzā Mahamdī and for Mathī Khān, For so many of the chiefs as she knew by name. Men were sent for them, they drew near,

She began to give robes to each one,

They made their obeisance and accepted them. After that she said: "All must swear

"That to 'Alim 'Ali Khan they are loval,

"They will behave as duty to their salt demands,

"Thus receiving at the last the reward of the true-hearted.

"May God keep you all under His gracious eye,

"Good faith is a great thing in the world." All pledged themselves, they swore an oath;

"The ruler of our hearts is God,

"While life remains, while breathing breath,

"We will stand firm-footed before our lord,

- " Qadam son qadam, hāth son hāth jor,
- " Karege jablak hogī dushman kī mor;
- 215 "Hamen dil son qurban hai, aur nigar.
  - "Rakho dil mon, Ṣāḥib! tūmen bar-qarār." Kahī: " Āfrīn! Tum namak-khwār ho, "Wafādār, be-shak. o dildār ho." Widā' ho prān, mā koņ kīnā salām,
- 220 Kīyā kūch begī soņ, bas wa as-salām! Chale, aur ga,e beg ūtar ghāt soņ, Le-kar lao-lashkar wa sabh bhant son. Karī fauj apne ke kitne suwār, Jo dekhā to maujūd chālīs hazār;
- 225 The itne shutar-nal, gaj-nal, ban,

Sūne koī <u>sh</u>alq, to jāwe prān, Rahekle o topen than itne sanghat, Kahi, e kyā? Nahīn koī kahnī kī bāt! Nizāmu-l-mulk par ho wājib, yaqīn

- 230 Kih ab jang sābit hai, be kāf-o-shīn, Kahāyā salām aur kahāyā du'ā Kih: "Larnā mere sāth kuchho nahīn naf'ā, "Kīyā hai Dakhin kā mūjhe Sūbahdār,
  - "Larā,ī kā mat dee mujh son bīchār,
- 235 "Chale jāo sīdhī Hindūstān koņ,
  - "Chachā pas apne so amān son.
  - " Main larke se kyā tegh-bāzī karūn,
  - "Bhalā hai jo kuch kār-sāzī karūņ." Sūnā jab khabar Sayyad-i-'ālā-janāb
- 240 Kahā: "Dehū begī soņ is kā juwāb."
  - "' Nanhe 'umr hūņ, pun main larkā nahīn,
  - "'Kisī bāt kā dil mon dharkā nahīn,
  - "'Main Sayyad hūn, tum dil mon kyā liyāe ho?
  - "'Mere mulk par chal-ke, kyūņ ā,e ho?
- 245 "'Mujhe 'ar-hi-'ar hai, 'ar-i-nang;
  - "'Chale ao begī, nah liyayo darang.
  - "'Agar lākh dar lākh faujān milen,
  - "'Kih jin ke dhamak son tabq thalen,

  - "'Main ū shakhş hūn, jo talan-hār nāh,
- 250 "'Shujā'at merī kis pai izhār nāh?
  - "'Agar hai haiyātī to gham nahīn mūjhe,
  - "' Agar maut hai, to wahm nahīn mūjhe,
  - "'Jo māryā hai qismat mon merī qalam,
  - "'Nah howegā ziyādah, nah howegā kam,
- 255 "'Main rāzī-i-Rizā par hūn jo kūchh razā,
  - "' Wahī khūb hai, jo karegā Khudā.'" Ba-har-ḥāl ūh fauj ūtarī nadī, Pakar dil manī, dund da'wā badī;

- " Foot set to foot, hand joining hand,
- "We stand fast so long as the enemy resists:
- "Heartily we offer ourselves a sacrifice and offering,
- "You may, lady, set your heart at rest."

She replied: "Bravo! you are true salt-eaters,

- "Faithful, without a doubt, and great of heart."
- The loved one said farewell, he saluted his mother, He marched at once, enough and there's an end.

He moved on and quickly descended the pass,

Took army and baggage, all kinds of soldiers.

He had in his army crowds of horsemen, When counted he found them forty thousand;

There were so many camel-pieces, elephant guns,

rockets,

That hearing them discharged one's breath went, Of field guns, siege guns, such a collection, What shall we say? There is nothing can be said.

Nizām-ul-Mulk seeing certainly of a truth

That war was now on foot, without any doubt, Sent his compliments and a prayer,

Saying: "To fight with me is devoid of profit,

- "They have made me governor of the Dakhin,
- "Think not of fighting with me,
- "Make your way straight to Hindūstān,
- "Join your uncle and be in safety.
- "How shall I use sword-play with a child,
- "It will be well whatever pretext I make." When the exalted Sayyad heard this message

He said: "Send forthwith this my answer:

- " 'Young in age I am, but not a boy,
- "'Nothing can make my heart to flutter,
- " 'I am a Sayyad, what idea have you taken up,
- "'Into my country why have you advanced?
- "'I feel the ignominy, the slur on my reputation.
- " 'Come on at once, make no lingering.
- "'If thousands on thousands of soldiers advance,
- "' 'Whose tread makes the heavenly vault to shift,
- "'I am that man who neither shirks nor flinches,
- " 'Who is there to whom my valour is not evident.
- "'If life survives, I sorrow not,
- "'If it be death, I treasure no illusion,
- "' 'To what the pen has recorded as my fate
- "'Nothing can be added, from it nothing taken
- "'I am pleased and contented, whatever His pleasure,
- "' That thing is best which God provides.' " In short that army crossed the river, Cherishing in its heart great expectations;

Idhar son waho la<u>sh</u>kar, ūdhar son ūh fauj,
260 Pare ā nazīk, jyūn samudar kī mauj.
Napaṭ dāb ābī lage tab abhāl,
Barsne lagā rāt-din bar<u>sh</u>kāl,
Kaṭak dhyūns guzarī thī is bāt kon.
Dīyā ko <u>kh</u>abar ā ūhī rat kon:
265 "Subb jang howagā yūn hai khabar.

265 "Şubh jang howegā, yūn hai khabar, "Yihī zikr lashkar mon hai ghar-ba-ghar."

Kahā: "Junth hai, yah nahin, kyā i'tibar,

"Hamāre hain jāsūs bhī hoshyār."
Na jānā kih jāsūs, qāṣid, tamām,
270 Ho rahe hain Nizāmu-l-mulk ke ghulām.
Thī tārikh chhauen jo Shawwāl kī,
Badī naḥas-tar, sakht janjāl kī,
Athā roz itwār kā, nā-ba-kār,
Gharī thī wah Mirrikh kī, ashak-bār,
275 Thī sā'at ūh sā'at mane khūn-fishān,

Satārā Zuhal kā thā wuh be-gumān. Kharā ho kīyā 'arz; "Ai Dastgīr! "Nizāmu-l-mulk fauj le-ke kaṣīr; "Mangā yū kamānān mere hāth kiyān." 280 "Jo hain rāt-din wah mere sāth kiyān."

Ṣubḥ koṇ ūṭhā Sayyad-i-neknām, Bhatā, aur laga bolne khūsh-kalām:

"Naqārā de ātā hai, ai Qiblah-gāh!" Ḥukm ho, to tayār howe sipāh?"

285 "Mangā yū sipar āhanī, phul-dār, "Sawāri moņ ājhan meņ jo ham so piyār." Kahe: "Kyā khair hai āj, dostān!" Ūṭhā bol begī soņ Ghiyās Khān: "Auh 'Alim 'Alī! Sayyad, mihrbān!

"Auh 'Alım 'Alī! Sayyad, mihrbān! 290 "Shujā'at moņ gāhir jis kā nishān!

"Shitābī merā khol torā mangāo,

"Mere khās ghore kon pākhar chadhāo,

"Hāthī koņ sarī jākah sar soņ bandhāo,

"Jo haudaj hai jangī, qulābā lagāo,

295 "Lagā bar-kash ūs kon khūbī kharo, "Hū,ā waqt ab, phir darrang mat karo." Kīyā jā ghul, aur ūṭhā,ī do hāth, Kahā: "Yā nabī, sarware-be-kāināt! "Khabar jang kā āj hai ṭhār ṭhār,

300 "Yahī ghūl hai sabh fauj mon ashkār." Sūnā soch baktar mangayā shitāb,

Hotā musta'd, jān-i-'ālā-janāb.

Here was that camp, there was that army,
They drew near like the waves of the ocean.
It grew exceedingly overcast, rain threatened,
The rainy season began, it rained day and night,
The army endured discomfort from this cause.
A man came that night and reported:

"To-morrow the fight will be, that is the rumour, "This is spoken of in the camp from place to place."

He said: "It is a lie, it cannot be, can this be trusted,

"Are not my spies, too, on the alert?"

He knew not that all his spies and messengers

Were entirely slaves of Nizām-ul-Mulk.

It was on the sixth of the month Shawwāl,

A day most unfortunate, full of perplexity,

It was a Sunday, most unpropitious,

The hour was that of Mars, fraught with tears,

The moment chosen was one devoted to blood-shedding;

The star was Saturn without a doubt.

He stood up and prayed: "O Protector!

"Nigām-ul-Mulk comes with a huge army!

"Send for the bow that was put in my hand,

"The one which was given to keep day and night."

At day-break rose the well-famed Sayyad,
In pleasing manner he began to speak persuasively:

"He comes beating his drums, O venerated One!

"If orders issue, the army will prepare,

"Bring my shield, of iron, engraved with flowers,

"Let those who love me ride with me this day."

He added: "How fortunate is this day, O friends." Up at once and cried out <u>Gh</u>iyās <u>Kh</u>ān:

"O 'Alim 'Alī! the lord, the gracious!

"Whose valorous standard is far renowned:

"Let them bring at once my helm and gun,

"Array my choicest steed in armour,

"Go fix on my elephant's head his circlet,

"Get out my war canopy, bind it to its staples,

"See that its surcingle is well and tightly drawn,

"Now is the time, delay not any longer."

He cried aloud, he raised both hands on high,

He said: "O prophet, chief of created beings,

"Signs of battle on this day abound,

"This outcry is clear all through the army."
His mind made up, at once he called for his hauberk,

He becomes eager of soul, does the exalted lord.

So jāsūs itne moņ āyā shitāb, Pasine mon dūbā jyūn gharq āb.

305 Kahā: "Liyāo jo kuchh merā sāj hai,

"Mūjhe kām dushman sete āj hai,

"Katāre wa nezā wa shamsher liyāo,

"Jo tarkash hai khāṣā, so begī mangāo,

"Tuman kon merî laj kî laj hai,

310 "Madad ko nah, tum bin, mūjhe āj hai." Kamr bāndh hatyār, is kon sambhāl,

> Lagayo chhine mukh kon, le le rumal. Kahā: "Liyā,o huqqā, do dam zauq hai, "Kıh huqqe son hamana ke bhī shauq hai."

315 Khabardār itne moņ liyāyā khabar Kih: "Paithe ho gayā, Sayyad, sher-i-nar,

"Nizāmu-l-mulk fauj kon sāth le,

"Tümhäre amīro kā dıl hāth le,

"Kīyā tūm ūpar fauj-bandī soņ chāl.

320 "Fath deo tūmanā kon ab Zu,l-jalāl!

"Agarchah nahīn kisī kon kuchh 'ilm-i.

"Sabhon kon to dastāhī bi,lkul qarīb." Sūnā soch jāsūs jharkā sunā,

Huqqā sāmne thā, so sarkā sanā;

325 Kahā: "Log mere wafā-dār hai,

"Main chākar nahin jāntā, yār hai,

"Sabhe ek jīwan, wa sabh ek tan,

"Shujā'at ke hain khān ke sabh ratn,

"We dāne haiņ tasbīḥ ke, maiņ imām,

330 "Rachhen ek dhage mon hil-mil madam,

"Mere säth kyūņkaı judā,ī kareņ,

" Mūjhe chhod, kyūn rū-siyāhī karen,

"Lūtāyā hūņ in par maiņ sabh mulk, māl,

"Nizāmu-ul-mulk kyā karegā nihāl?"

335 Uthā bol sabh son: "Suwārī karo!

"Dunyā sahal hai, dil son yārī karo,

" Hansā mat karo, zindagī hai sahal,

"Sharāfat moņ mat liyā,o apne khalal,

"Khudā ke karm kā hūņ umedwār,

340 "Rahkegā mere lāj Parwardigār.

"Main Sayyad hūn, ūh mūjh par chal ā,e hain,

"Mere ghar pai nā-ḥaqq balā liyā,e haiņ,

"Khudā ke hai inṣāf, mānoṇ tūmeṇ,

"Fath hai, to hamārā yih jānon tūmen."

Then came a spy with hurrying feet, Pouring with sweat as if plunged in water.

He said: "Bring me all my harness,

"This day my business is with the enemy,

"Bring dagger and lance and scimitar, "That special quiver bring to me quickly,

"On you alone depend my name and fame,

"No aider exists for me to-day unless it be you." Round his waist he bound his weapons, and adjusted them,

Applied chhine to his face, using his handkerchief. He said: "Bring a pipe, I long for a whiff or two,

"For I, too, am fond of smoking my pipe."

Then a scout brought in a report,

Saying: "O Sayyad! that male tiger appeared,

" Nizam-ul-Mulk has brought with him his army,

"He has taken hold of your leader's hearts,

"He has declared hostilities against you.

"May the All Powerful now give you the victory!

"Although none can read the hidden record.

"Yet for all of us God's hand is very near." He listened and reflecting rebuked the scout, His pipe lay before him, he took a pull, And said: "My men are quite to be trusted,

"I look on them not as servants but as friends,

"We are all one soul, all one body,

"All of them jewels from the mine of Bravery,

. They are grains of a chaplet, I am the priest,

"Strung on one thread they are ever united,

"Wherefore should they abandon me,

"By throwing me over why blacken their faces?

"I have showered on them gifts of goods and

"How further can Nizām-ul-Mulk enrich them." He up and spoke to all: "To horse!

"The world is a slight thing, stand by me heart and soul,

"Play not the buffoon, living is an easy matter,

" Bring no stain on your high descent,

"On the mercy of God I place my reliance,

"The Provider will keep aloft my fame.

"I am a Sayyad, he has attacked me,

"On my house unjustly bringing calamity!

"There is a God of Justice, as you will find out, "If I win the day all this you will know."

#### NOTES ON THE INDO-SCYTHIANS.

#### BY SYLVAIN LEVI.

Extracted and rendered into English, with the author's permission, from the "Journal Asiatique," July-Dec., 1896, pp. 444 to 484, and Jan.-June, 1897, pp. 5 to 42, by W. R. Philipps.

(Concluded from Vol. XXXII. p. 426.)

#### PART III. — SAINT THOMAS, GONDOPHARES, AND MAZDEO.

What follows here is practically a translation of the whole of the third part of M. Lévi's Notes, in the Journal Asiatique, Jan.-June, 1897, pp. 27 to 42, slightly condensed in some places. As in Parts I. and II., the figures in thick type in square brackets mark the pages of the original.

M. Lévi first [27] reminds us how the name of the king Gondophares, which had been perpetuated through the Christian middle ages, as shewn by the Golden Legend, was deciphered upon an ancient coin from Gandhâra (see Cunningham's paper, Coins of Indian Buddhist Satraps with Greek Inscriptions, in J. A. S. Bengal, 23, 1854, p. 679 ff.). Thus, the legend and the coins form a bond between Indian and Christian antiquities. It is a curious fact that the tradition regarding the apostle St. Thomas should have preserved for eighteen centuries the remembrance of a comparatively obscure king, ruling about the confines of India, Iran, and Scythia. We ought, therefore, to examine the details of the legend, and see if we can get any real history out of it.

M. Lévi then refers to Gutschmid's famous paper on the subject (Von Gutschmid, Die Königsnamen in den Apocryphen Apostelgeschichten, in Rheinisches Museum fur Philalogie, 1864, 161-183 and 380-401; Kleine Schriften, II. 332-394).

He points out that though Gutschmid discussed the question in a masterly way, his ingenious sagacity was exercised on insufficient materials, and his conclusions have since been shaken. We have now much additional valuable material, coins and inscriptions; moreover, the literature of St. Thomas and of the apocryphal Acts has been increased with new texts and important works.

Among these works M. Lévi cites the following:1 -

Max. Bonnet, Supplementum Codicis Apocryphi, I., Acta Thomæ, Lipsiæ, 1883. — Wright, Apocryphal Acts of the Apostles from Syrian MSS. (II. English translation, London, 1871). — Malan, Certamen Apostolorum, Conflicts of the holy Apostles translated . . . London, 1871. — K. Schröter, Gedicht des Jakob von Sarug über den Palast den der Apostel Thomas in Indien baute, in Z. D. M. G. XXV. 1871, 321-377. — R. A. Lipsius, Die Apoloryphen Apostelgeschichten und Apostellegenden, 3 Vols., Braunschweig, 1883-4.

M. Lévi mentions an Armenian version of the apocryphal Acts of Thomas, not yet printed. M. Carrière called his attention to the manuscript in the Berlin Library, and M. Frédéric Macler noted all the proper names for him, and translated several passages. The text appears to be identical with the Syriac, edited by Wright.

Having thus specified the new material available, M. Lévi proceeds to a new examination of the question: —

[28] Two apostles, Thomas and Bartholomew, are said to have evangelised India. But if we compare the legendary accounts of the two saints, a marked difference appears. The legend of St. Bartholomew is founded upon vague and impersonal notions. The Greek compiler of the Martyrdom of Bartholomew, copied slavishly by Abdias, begins with a pedantic display of false science:

<sup>1 [</sup>For names of some additional works, see articles in Indian Antiquary, 1903, pp. 1 ff. and 145 ff., entitled The Connection of St. Thomas the Apostle with India. We may also point out that Malan's book is now out of date, being quite superseded by E. A. W. Budge, The Contendings of the Apostles, 2 Vols.; London, 1901. — W. R. P.]

"Historiographers say that India is divided into three parts: the first, according to them reaches to "Ethiopia; the second to Media; the third is at the end of the country; on one side it extends to "the region of darkness, and on the other to the Ocean. It was to this India that Bartholomew "went" (Acta Apostolorum apocrypha, ed. Tischendorf, Lipsiae, 1851, p. 243; Abdiæ Apostolicæ historiæ, ed. Fabricius, Hambourg, 1719, p. 669). The other notions are of the same character; the scene of the Acts is so indefinite, that king Polymius, who put the apostle to death, has been taken for Polemon II., king of Pontus, and also for Pulumāyı, king of the Dekkan (Lipsius, op. cit., II. 2, 71; E. Kuhn, Barlaam und Joasaph, München, 1893, Abhand. d. k. bayer, Akad. d. Wiss., XX. bd., I. abth., p. 85). [29] The route of Thomas is, on the contrary, clear and logical. The king Goundaphoros has directed the merchant Abbanes, who was returning to Syria, to get him a skilful architect, for he wishes to have a magnificent palace built. Christ appears to Abbanes and sells Thomas to him as one of his slaves. The apostle, who hesitated to go so far, does not dare to resist his divine master, and embarks with Abbanes. A good voyage brings them to the port of Andrapolis, capital of a kingdom. They disembark, continue their journey by land through the towns of India, and arrive at last at the residence of Goundaphoros. Then, at Christ's command, the apostle directs himself towards the east, and penetrates into Further India (Inde Ultérieure).2 He arrives at the capital of the king Misdeos, and suffers martyrdom upon a hill near the town. A Christian piously steals away the body of the saint and takes his relies to Mesopotamia.

Abbanēs and his companion follow the regular trade route between the coast of Syria and the Pañjāb. Pliny (Hist. natur. 6, 26, 103) and the author of the Periplus, who wrote soon after St. Thomas, trace in detail the same route. Passengers and cargoes which came to Alexandria from Mediterranean ports, were reshipped on the Rel Sea; thence direct services and coasting lines went from Myos Hormos and from Berenikē, touched at Cape Syagros [30] in Arabia, and from this point reached, with or without stoppages (escales), the trading places (comptoirs) of the mouths of the Indus, Patala or Barbarikon; "the ships remain there at anchor; the goods go up the river to "the capital, Minnagar, situated quite inland, the metropolis of Scythia, governed by Parthians, "who, troubled by internal dissensions, are constantly driving each other out" (Periplus mar. Erythr. 38-39). If the country was not safe, it was better to prolong the voyage to Barygaza, on the coast of Ariakē, at the mouth of the Narmadā; a great caravan route led from this port, by Ozēnē (Ujjayanī), to Proklais (Pushkalavatī) on the borders of Bactriana (Perip. mar. Erythr. 48).3

[31] Carried away by the spirit of system, Gutschmid thought he must amend the apostle's route. So he makes Andrapolis, the city where St. Thomas disembarked, a town of the Andhras; thus locating it on the Konkan coast, where the Andhra-Sātakarni dynasty ruled in the first century of our era. Then he makes the travellers take their course thence towards the north and

2 In connection with his rendering of *India superior* by Inde Ultérieure, Further India, M. Lévi has here added a note as follows:—I have found exactly the same expression in a passage of Ammianus Marcellinus (XXXIII., 6, 32 seq.): Zoroaster and Hydaspes, the father of Darius, developed magic; the latter of them "cum superioris Indiae secreta fidentius penetraret, ad nemorosam quandam venerat solitudinem cojus tranquillis silentiis praecelsa Bracmanorum ingenia potiuntur." It is plain that superior India means here the most remote part of India. We may compare the expressions Germania superior, Maesia superior, in which the word superior marks the province situated furthest up in going up the course of a river. In the same way, India superior should designate the upper basin of the Indus (of course, in India), in opposition to the lower course of the river, where there were India citerior with prima Indiae civitas, and India ulterior with the kingdom of Gudnafar.

E The tradition of the Christians of Malabar, the Christians of St. Thomas as they are called, apparently invalidates the data of the Acts. According to their tradition, the apostle came in 52 A. D. from Socotra to the island of Malankara, near Cranganor (Malabar), and founded the seven communities of Cranganur, Palur, North Partr, South Pallipuram, Naranam, Nellakkul and Quilon; having gone thence to Mailapur (suburb of Madras) in Coromandel, he converted the king Sagan; a brahman put him to death with a thrust from a lance on a neighbouring mount. The body of the Saint was transported to Edessa, as in the other legend. But the antiquity of this legend has still to be proved; it does not rest upon any positive document. Most historians, including Lipsius, reject it. The precision of the Acts contrasts with this colourless story; the former contain the name of a true contemporary, forgotten by history; the latter borrows from local fable a dynastic name which symbolises the past. Paulinus a S. Bartholomæo saw in Sagan the Saraganes of the Periplus, a Sātakaṇṇi king, and in particular Śālivāhana the Śātakaṇṇi; as a chronological indication, Sagan-Śāhvāhana has as much value as the Vikramāditya of the tales.

west to the kingdom of the Iranian Masdeos, otherwise Mazda. This amended route is absurd; in order to go from Syria to the Parthians, it was unnecessary to make a détour by the Dekkan. Gutschmid, having thus gratuitously introduced absurdity into the narrative, proceeds to impute it to the compiler of the Acts, and makes it his text in order to prove what he thinks is the true origin of the story. He decides accordingly that the author had clumsily borrowed the legend of a Buddhist missionary, perhaps Nāgārjuna, who went from the Dekkan to preach to the Yavanas and Pahlavas. Then he makes all the details support his hypothesis: the frequent appearances of Christ (christophanies) are apparitions of the Buddha; the healing power of the relics is a Buddhist superstition; the miracles of Thomas correspond to the supernatural powers of the arhat; the demons driven out by the sign of the cross are only rākshasīs ill disguised; finally, the lion which tears to pieces and kills the impious attendant is the unintelligent realisation of a consecrated name: Sakyasimha, the lion of the Sakyas!

Gutschmid's ingenious structure rests on disputable and false data. [32] His geographical interpretation, founded on the name Andrapolis, is upset by the Syriac and Armenian; the former writes Sudrūk, the latter Sudrak; in the Greek the initial sibilant may have dropped, as, for instance, in Andrakottos, a form used concurrently with Sandrakottos. Thus the Andhras, the Dekkan, and Nagarjuna would all be struck out at once. However, let us even suppose the name Andrapolis to be correct, and Gutschmid's location right. But then how about the route? The Periplus marks out the way from the ports of Gujarāt to Kābul as viá Ujjayinī. But, in order to bring the apostle to the Parthians, Gutschmid is obliged to flatly contradict the unanimous testimony of the texts. In the Acts, the apostle on quitting the kingdom of Gondophares directs his course towards the east; in the Passio, he takes his way to Further India (Inde Ultérieure). The Ethiopian version, which represents an autonomous form of the tradition, also conducts St. Thomas to the east after the conversion of Gondophares; in that version the capital of the king Mastius (Misdeos) is called Quantaria, a name which suggests Gandhara, occupied by Sakas, Kushanas and Parthians at different times. Another tradition, foreign to the Acts, but constant among the Greek fathers from the 5th century, gives the name Kalamine to the town where St. Thomas suffered martyrdom. As to this name. Gutschmid calls attention to a village Kalama upon the coast of Gedrosia, opposite the island of Karbine or Karmina; the name perhaps conceals, in a distorted form, the [33] town of Min, Minnagara, metropolis of Indo-Scythia.4

An exact knowledge of India appears in the episodes and details of the Acts. On disembarking at Sndrük-Andrapolis, Thomas is obliged to take part in a feast; he there sings a mystical hymn in his mother-tongue. In the multitude which surrounds him, only one person understands him; she is only a flute player, like Thomas, a native of Palestine (Έβραῖα); the king of the country had engaged her to enliven the assembled guests with her music. This accidental meeting is not so removed from probability as to be surprising. According to Strabo (ed. Müller-Didot, 82, 18), young female musicians of western origin were articles of import certain to please in India; professionally they were not distinguished from "the young well-made girls intended for debauchery," whom the Greek merchants offered together with musical instruments to the kings of the ports of Gujarāt (Perip. mar. Erythr., § 49; the term μουσικά, which reappears in this passage, and is generally translated "musical instruments," recalls at once the μουσικά παιδισκάρια of Strabo).

<sup>\*</sup> The town of Gondophares has no name given to it except in the Passio, the manuscripts of which call it Ehforum, Yroforum, Hienforum, Inforum, Hierapolis.—[What is here briefly called the Passio is the second of the two Latin versions of the Acts of St. Thomas printed by Max Bonnet, op. cit. Its heading is Passio Sancti Thomas Apostoli. The other version is headed De Miraculis Beati Thomas Apostoli.—W. R. P.]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> M. Lévi has here added a note as follows: — This occasion is a suitable one for drawing attention to a new illustration, as unexpected as it is striking, of the liking which the wealthy Indians had for young people of the west. The 3rd fasciculus of the Oxyrhynchus Papyri, edited by Messrs. Grenfell and Hart (London, 1903), contains a fragment of a Greek farce, played in Egypt, which has its scene laid in India, and has for its topic the adventures of a young Greek, Charition, who finds himself in the power of an Indian king. By its importance for the history of the Indian theatre, this fragment calls for special study.

The forerunner of Columbus, Eudoxus of Cyzicus [about 130 B. C.], on setting out from Gades to go to India, shipped as cargo μουσικά παιδισκάρια καὶ 'ιατρούς καὶ ἄλλους τεχνίτας.

The wild asses, which came of their own accord to be harnessed to the apostle's chariot [34] and drew him to the town of Misdeos, are in India found only upon the borders of the Indus, where Gondophares and his neighbour reigned (cf. Hunter, Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. 14, Index, s. v. Asses, Wild).

We also find that monuments agree with nature and with the texts in attesting the accuracy of the narrator: the ruins of Gandhāra, recovered from the dust of ages after a long period of oblivion, still bear the indisputable stamp of the Greek artists, who came, like the hero of the Acts, "to fashion columns (stèles) in stone, and also temples and royal residences." Did that unknown sculptor also dream of heavenly palaces, who cut upon a Buddhist pillar the image of the Good Shepherd, such as it is seen in the catacombs at Rome (Cole, Græco-Buddhist sculptures from Yusufzai, 1885; of Griinwedel, Buddhistiche Kunst in Indien, Berlin, 1893; Foucher, Les scènes figurées de la légende du Bouddha, in Bibliothèque de l'Évole des hautes-études, sciences religieuses, t. 7, 1896).

The Acts and connected literature do not include all the current traditions regarding the voyage of St. Thomas to the Indies, other legends, equally founded upon exact information, were also in circulation. The apocryphal writing, De Transitu Mariae, which is considered one of the most ancient Christian works, with surprising accuracy briefly alludes to one of these episodes. St. Thomas, who has been brought by a miracle to the Blessed Virgin in her last [35] moments, converses with the apostles: "I was traversing the country of the Indies and, by the grace of Christ, I proclaimed the "gospel there; the son of the sister of the king, called Labdanes," was on the point of receiving "baptism, when the Holy Spirit said to me . . ." The nephew of Gondophares does not appear in the Acts; they name only Gad, brother of the king,9 but coins have shewn us the nephew. The bilingual legends on the coins of Abdagases declare his royal relationship: υνδιφερο αδελφιδεως on one side, and gandaphara-bhrata-patrasa on the reverse. 10 Abdagases, it is true, is the son of a brother of Gondophares; Labdanes is the son of a sister of the king; but, in spite of this slight divergence, it is difficult to separate the two personages, and even the two names. The initial lambda of Labdanes is perhaps the result of dittography (A)ABAANHC. Marquart (Beiträge zur Geschichte und Sage von Eran in Z. D. M. G., XLIX., 1895, 682) explains Abdagases by "wunderbar schön" [wonderfully beautiful] from gas, "beautiful." The employment of the hypocoristic form is proved by a certain number of Parthian names.

[36] As so many exact facts and positive notions have been thus preserved in the cycle of the apostle Thomas, we ought to search the real history of India for the king named in the Acts along with Gondophares. Though the date is doubtful, we have a useful mark in the Takht-i-Bahi inscription (Dowson, J. R. A. S., N. S., 7, 376 ff. and 9, 144-46; Senart, J. A., Jan.-June, 1890, 113-163). This inscription, which commemorates a pious foundation, bears as date "the year 26 of "the king Guduphara, 103 [in letters and figures] of the continuous era (sambaddha?), the fifth day "of the month Vaiśākha." The reading and meaning of the epithet applied to the era are uncertain, and its starting point is undetermined. But there is no doubt about the identity of the king; on the bilingual coins of Gondophares, Guduphara is one of the Indian forms into which the name is

<sup>6</sup> Tischendorf, Apocalypses apocryphe, Intr. p. xxxvi: "(librum) non pertinere ad medii aevi, sed antiquitatis "christianæ monumenta certum est, quanquam ambigi potest utrum sæculo demum quarto an prius prodierit."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> [The apocryphal work on "the Falling Asleep of the Holy Mother of God," here cited as De Transitu Mariae, has been somewhat fully dealt with in the Indian Antiquary, 1903, pp. 152, 157, in respect of the proposed identification of Labdanes with Abdagases, which seems to be not so probable as M. Lévi has thought. — W. R. P.]

<sup>\*</sup> Apocalypses apocryphæ, p. 181. The Syriac text No. 2 (quoted *ibid*. p xxxvi, note), in consequence of some confusion, has "The nephew of Ludan, king of India." The Arabio, Latin and Syriac No. 2 versions indicate simply that Thomas was in India.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Gutschmid thought he had recovered the name of Gad, brother of Gondophares, in the legend βασιλευα oaδα read by Longpérier on a coin of Gondophares. But Longpérier's reading arose from an error, since rectified by new specimens, and Gutschmid's explanation is thus struck out.

<sup>10</sup> For the coins of Abdagases, besides Cunningham's articles already mentioned, see Hoernle, Copper-coins of Abdagases, J. A. S. Beng., 1895, Proceedings, p. 82-84.

transcribed; <sup>11</sup> this name only appears in the series called Indo-Parthian, and is there borne by only this one prince. If Gondophares had been reigning twenty six years in the year 103 of the unknown era, his accession was in the year 77 of the same. An era also undetermined, but certainly pretty near the other, was in constant use among the Kushanas beginning with Kanishka, whose name figures in an inscription of the year 5 (B-ihler, Jaina Insers. from Mathurā in Epigr. Ind. 1, 381, No. 1). If we admit [37] hypothetically the identity of the two eras, then Vāsudeva, <sup>12</sup> among [38] the Kushanas, would be a contemporary of Gondophares<sup>13</sup>; the latest actually known dates of Vāsudēva are from 74 to 98. The Sanskrit name Vāsudēva is only found in epigraphic monuments, on coins with Greek legends he is BAZOAHO and BAZAHO. No doubt these coins, intended for circulation in a vast dominion, were by preference inscribed with the current form of the royal name. But the name Bazdēo, when it came into Iranian territory, would fall under Mazdean influences, and easily be transformed into Mazdeo. The initial labials M and B were constantly confused; to confine ourselves to India only, we may recall the name Mumbā, transformed by the Portuguese into Bombay, and to go further back, the name Munnagar (Periplus, § 40), written Binnagar by Ptolemy.

All the numerous variants of the royal name in the Acts converge towards Mazdeo as the original form: the Greek floats between Misdaios, Misdeos, Mesdeos, altered into Smidaios in the Menaca [certain hturgical books of the Greek Church], and into Smindaios in Nicephorus; the Latin of the Miracula and of the Pussio gives Mesdeus and Misdeus; the Syriac has [39] Mazdai; the Armenian Mštēh; the Ethiopian Mastius. The name borne by the son of Masdeos suggests an identical solution. The Greek has Ouzanēs, <sup>14</sup> Ouazanēs, Iouzanēs; the Latin Zuzanes and Luzanes; the Syriac Wizan; the Armenian Vizan. Gutschmid, and Marquart <sup>15</sup> after him, saw here the Pahlavi

11 Buhler has recently pointed out a new form "Gudupharna" discovered by O. Franke on cause at Berlin, W. Z. K. M. 1893, p. 53, note. — [See also Indian Antiquary, 1896, p. 141. — W. R. P.]

12 The name of this king, so plainly Indian, comes as a surprise after the still barbarous names of Kanishka and of Hushka. It is true, however, that a Sanchi inscription (Buhler, Ep. Ind. II. 339) gives an intermediate form Vāsushka. The following explanation is suggested as to the origin of the name Vāsudēva. On the oldest coins of the dynasty, we have in Indian characters Kushana or Khushana, in Greek KOPCNA (KOPCANO on the coins of the doubtful Miaos or Heraos); and XOPANO. The letters PC correspond to the first attempts to represent a foreign sound in Greek characters, a sound which was reproduced afterwards by P and finally by a new form of P with the staff prolonged upwards. To an Indian ear κορσνα would have sounded like the name Krishna, which the Greeks have transcribed by κορσάνης. (The gloss given by Hesychius: δορσάνης δ'Ηρακλής παρ' Ίνδοῖς, corrects itself.) The name of Kushana, thus understood, might have been translated into Indian language by one of the synonyms of Krishna. Vasudeva, one of the most frequent names of the divine hero, could then be substituted for Kushana, as a sort of synonym. The numerous coins struck during several centuries in the name of Vasudeva would be the coinage of the Indianised Kushana kings. Moreover, if the equivalence of the rho, whether with or without the prolonged staff, with the Indian or Iranian sh is incontestable, their identity remains to be established. In view of the names Kanerkes, Oerkes = Kanishka, Huvishka, we may recall that Herodotus mentions a king of the Sakas named Amorges: the formation of these names presents a striking resemblance; the name given by Herodotus to the son of the famous queen Tomyris, Spargapises, which recalls so closely the names of several kings classed by numismatists after Gondophares, for instance Spilgadames, seems to shew the same onomastic formations in use among the Scythians, contemporary with Christ. The coins of Spalirises shews the floating state of the transcription, his name is there sometimes written Sapilirisou, sometimes Spalirisou, and also Rpalirisou. The Scythic sound no doubt required a very strong aspiration. It is not impossible that the Scythæ Chauranaei of Ptolemy, with the town of Khaurana (VI. 15, 3-4), placed on the northern frontier of India, along the Emodus (Himalaya), may be the Kushanas. The name in any case is externally identical with the form XOPANO = Kushana of the coins of Kujulakadphisēs (cf. Vol. XXXII. above, p. 424).

15 Von Sallet has already insisted upon the coincidence of the epigraphical dates of Gondophares and Vāsudēva "If the era is the same, Gondophares comes at the end of the Indo-Scythians, perhaps even after Bazdeo, the last "of them. But, from a numismatic point of view, this, in my opinion, is almost impossible, for Bazodeo cannot "be far removed from the time of the Sassauides. Gondophares seems earlier—If, however, the eras are the same "in both cases, a difficulty remains to be solved by Indianists. I should put Gondophares after Josus Christ, but "before the Turushkas" (Die Nachfolger Alexanders des Grassen in Baktrien und Indien, 52)...

14 The forms Iouzanes, Zouzanes in Greek, Zuzanes and Luzanes in Latin, perhaps preserve the trace of an initial letter, which has disappeared in Ouzanes. Only a slight correction, perhaps only another reading of the manuscript, would be necessary to change lougants into Pougants.

15 Marquart, Beitrage zur Geschichte und Sage von Eran, in Z. D. M. G. 49 (1895), 628-372. Marquart, in that article, also brings to notice the name of the kings (to the number of 3 or 12), whom tradition points out us contemporaries of Christ in the Iranian world. The king of Bahl (Bactres) is there called Akhsayars bar Sakhbûn.

Wijen, Persian Bijen; but such a reconstruction would not account for the Greek and Latin forms; it might be admissible, if we located the kingdom of Mesdeos in Iran, but it is inexplicable when India is concerned. The compiler of the Acts knew too much about India to give to an Indian prince the name of a secondary hero of the Iranian epic. The remembrance of this personage, Bezhan, son of Gev, son of Gudarz, may no doubt have had some influence on the Syriac and Armenian forms of the original name, but the Greek and Latin ones exclude the identity of the two names.

Comparison of all the forms leads us back to an original ouzan, or rather gouzan; in fact, the transformation of the syllable vi into gu, which had been definitely settled by the time of the Sassanians, was in [40] progress a little after the Christian era and facilitated the substitution of one syllable for the other. On the borders of India and of Iran, the pronunciation at the same period was unstable, and thus oscillated between initial u and gu. The name of Gondophares affords a conclusive example of this; while the Takht-i-Bahi inscription and the Indian legends of the coins have Guduphara, Gudupharna, Gondophara, the Greek legends hesitate between three transcriptions: Gondapharou, Induphrru and Undopherrou. Thus it seems that at the time the forms Undopherres and Guduphara were officially equivalent. We may, therefore, suppose Ouzanes and Gusana to be also equivalent. Gushana is the official form of the name of the Kushanas in two inscriptions, dated one in the reign of Kanishka, is only separated by an interval of twenty-four years from the last ascertained date for Vāsudēva-Bazdeo. It mentions a miharaya Gushana, but without specifying whether this indicates the dynastic or personal name of the king in question. The mahāiāja Gushana, who came so soon after the Kushana Vāsulēva, was perhaps identical with the royal prince Ouzanes, son of Masdeos. 18

[41] If Gondophares and Vāsudēva were really contemporaries of St. Thomas, they both reigned about the middle of the first century of the Christian era. With regard to Gondophares, this hypothesis agrees with other data (see P. Gardner, The Coins of the Greek and Scythic Kings of Bactria and India, 1886, Introd.). In the Greek legends on coins, Gondophares takes the title autokratōr, as did the Roman emperors beginning with Augustus. The coins of the Parthian kings, natural intermediaries between the Roman world and India, shew us plainly, when this title passed from the west to the east. Omitting the uncertain Sanotrokes, we find that Phraates IV, who reigned 8 to 11 A. D., was the only one who took the title autokratōr. It is also from the time of Phraates IV, that we find the square omega substituted for the round one in the Greek legends; the coins of Gondophares shew the change had been made in India by his time. Finally, Cunningham, relying upon the identity of names, considers Abdagases, nephew of Gondophares, [42] to be the grandson of the Parthian Abdagases, who was the ruling spirit at the court of Tiridates, in 36 A. D.; consequently he places the reign of Gondophares between 30 and 60 A. D.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>16</sup> The Manikyāla inscription has: gushuna-va a-sanvardhaka. Cf. Senart, Notes d'épigraphie indienne, VI., in J. A., Jan.-June, 1896, 5-26.

<sup>17</sup> Panjtar inscription, published by Cunningham, Archaeological Survey, V. 61.

<sup>18</sup> In view of future identifications, it may be useful to place together here the names of the other Indian personages mentioned in the legend of St Thomas. The general of Mesdeos is called in Greek Siphor, Suphor, Semphoros; in Latin, Sapor, Siporus, Siforus; in Syriac, Sifûr; in Armenian, Siphor. The chief of the servants of Mesdeos is Charisios (Gk.), Carisius (Lat.), Karish (Syr.), he has for wife Mygdonia, whose nurse is Markia (Narchia, Narka). The queen, wife of Mesdeos, is Tertia or Tertiane, Treptia (Lat.), Tartabania (Ethiop.). The prince Ouzanes (named Maiturnos in Ethiop.) is married to Asinara (Sisara, Mnēsara); Manashar (Syr.), Marna (Ethiop.).—[See also Indian Antiquary, 1903, pp. 7 and 153, where more precise lists are given. The texts hardly seem to justify the description (chef des serviteurs) applied to Charisios.— W. R. P.]

<sup>19</sup> The Christians of St. Thomas date the martyrdom of the apostle 21 December, 68 A. D.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> [Cunningham in 1854, in the paper referred to on p. 10 above, thought it "highly probable that the "Indo-Parthian Abdagases was the same as the Parthian chief whose revolt is recorded by Tacitus (Annal. XV. 2) "and Josephus (Antiqua, XXIII. 2)." At the place named, Tacitus makes no mention of Abdagases or of the revolt. There is nothing elsewhere in Tacitus to lead us to connect his Abdagases with India and Gondophares (see Annals, bk. 6 [A. D. 32-37], ch. 35, 36, 43 and 44). As to Josephus, there are only twenty books in the Antiquities of the Jews. Abdagases is only named in bk. 18, ch. 9, sec. 4, and there merely incidentally as one of the generals of Artabanus III. He is not mentioned in connexion with any revolt. — Subsequently, 1890, Cunningham thought it "quite possible" that the Abdagases of the coins was the grandson of the Abdagases of Tacitus, not the same individual (see Coins of the Indo-Scythians, London, 1890, p. 17). The reason of the change from grandfather to grandson is not apparent. — W. B. P.]

The dates drawn from Chinese texts lead us also to place the reign of Vāsudēva about the same epoch. If the Kushana dynasty was founded about 50 B. C., Vāsudēva should have reigned about 50 A. D. The ascertained dates of Kanishka run from the year 5 to the year 18, whatever be the starting point of the era; those of his successor, Huvishka, run from 33 to 51; those of Vāsudēva, from 74 to 98. Kanishka's death then falls between 18 and 33; the accession of Vāsudēva between 51 and 74; an interval of eighteen years at the least, of fifty-six years at the most, of thirty-seven years as a mean, separates these two events. If the first conversion of a Chinaman to Buddhism is traced back to the time of Kanishka, the voyage, real or imaginary, of the Apostle Thomas to the Indies must necessarily be fixed in Vāsudēva's time.

#### NOTE BY THE TRANSLATOR.

Some of the views stated by M. Lévi have been discussed by M. Specht in the Journal Asiatique, July-Dec., 1897, pp. 152 ff., in an article entitled Les Indo-Scythes et l'époque du règne de Kanichka. But he seems to be not quite fair to M. Lévi. After stating that the date generally taken by scholars for the crowning of Kanishka is 78 A. D., he goes on to say: — "Now M. Lévi, relying "principally on the Acts of St. Thomas, thinks he can revise all this chronology, without having "previously examined the historical value of the work, which has been placed by the Council of Rome "of 494 among the apocryphal books."

We do not read M. Lévi as relying principally upon the Acts of St. Thomas. Our readers may judge from the translations above. The use he makes of the Acts is merely supplementary to what he has drawn from Chinese sources. Having shewn reasons for believing that Kanishka's reign must be dated from about B. C. 5, he comes to the Acts, and suggests — (he hardly does more) — that the Mazdeo mentioned in them is perhaps Vāsudēva.

In view of the literature on the subject quoted by M. Lévi, and the way in which he has treated it, it seems more than unreasonable to state that he did not previously examine the historical value of the work. M. Lévi has not treated the Acts as historical, but, like other scholars, as an ancient legend, which seems to have preserved some fragments of historical value. M. Specht's reference to the "Council of Rome of 494" is singularly out of place. The condemnation of a book in the fifth century, on account of Gnostic or other false doctrine contained in it, is no evidence for or against its historical value for us nowadays.

Apart from this, we have no means of ascertaining if the work condemned with others in the Gelasian Decree, as it is called, to which M. Specht alludes, was really the Acts of St. Thomas, as we now have them. It may have been, or it may have been something like them; but all the information we have is the following words, in a list of 63 works not received by the Church and to be avoided: — "Actus nomine Thomae Apostoli, libri X. apocryphi" (see Migne, Patrologia lat., Vol. 59, Paris, 1847, col. 162). None of the versions of the Acts we now have are divided into ten books.

Further, the true date and history of this decree are not at all settled, though probably the date 494 is not far out (see F. J. Hort, Notes introductory to the study of the Clementine Recognitions, 1901, p. 65).

M. Specht goes altogether too far when he adds: — "It is relying upon this datum, so fragile, of "the identification of Misdeos with Vāsudēva, that M. Lévi thinks he is able to upset all the labours "of his predecessors." So, also, when he states that M. Lévi takes the date of the martyrdom of St. Thomas as 21 December, A. D. 68. M. Lévi does not do so: he merely mentions in a footnote that the Christians of St. Thomas so date the martyrdom.

## AN ABSTRACT ACCOUNT OF THE SEARCH FOR HINDI MANUSCRIPTS FOR THE YEARS 1900, 1901 AND 1902.

#### BY SYAM SUNDAR DAS, B.A.

READERS of the Indian Antiquary need not be reminded of the fact that it was in 1868 that the Government of India, at the suggestion of the late Pandit Rādhākrishņa of Lahore, decided to institute a search for Sanskrit Manuscripts in the different provinces of India; and the results regarding the ancient history and literature of India, which have been obtained by the consequent operations. sufficiently speak of the wise and far-sighted proposal of the Pandit and amply justify the action taken by the Government of India. The importance of this policy impressed itself on the minds of the founders of the Nagari-pracharini Sabha of Benares in the very year of its foundation (1893). The Sabhā believed that a good deal of valuable information with regard to the history and literature of India, or at any rate of its northern portion, still lay buried in Hindi Manuscripts, which had not seen the light of the day, either through being jealously guarded by their owners or on account of the want of funds on the part of the latter to give the public the benefit of knowing their contents. In short, this Sabhā, realising the difficulty it would have to face in overcoming the prejudices that still kept concealed the treasures of manuscripts, and being conscious that such an arduous undertaking could hardly be carried on without patience and tact. thought that if an attempt were made in Rājputānā, Bundelkhand, and parts of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Panjab to catalogue the Hindi Manuscripts that could be found in those parts of India, sufficient data would be forthcoming to justify the carrying on of the operations on an extended scale under the authority and patronage of the Government. But the Sabhā, being then in its incipient stage and but too conscious of its inability to take up so onerous and expensive a work upon itself, addressed a representation to the Government of India and the Asiatic Society of Bengal, praying them to publish a list of such Hindi Manuscripts as could be found in Sanskrit Libraries, which were being, or which might in future be, searched and examined. The Asiatic Society expressed a hope to be able to meet the wishes of the Nagarī-prachārini Sabhā. Later on a similar answer was received from the Government of India as well. The search was commenced by the Asiatic Society in the beginning of 1895, and, in all, some 600 manuscripts were noticed during that year. It is a matter of regret that the Society could not see its way to continue the search next year and to extend it further than Benares. It is a matter of still greater regret that the notices - nay, even a list of these 600 manuscripts - have not as yet been published.

The Government of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh was also approached by the Sabhā on the subject, and it was pleased to instruct the Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, to carry on the search of Hindi Manuscripts of historic value and literary merit simultaneously with and by the same agency as that employed in the search for Sanskrit Manuscripts. But these orders of the Government did not bring forth any appreciable results. The Sabhā again approached the Government in March 1899 as to the necessity of doing something substantial towards the search and the cataloguing of valuable Hindi Manuscripts, with the result that it made an annual grant of Rs. 400 to the Sabhā towards carrying on this work and undertook to publish the Report which the Sabhā was to submit annually to the Government. The grant was commenced from the financial year 1900 and was increased by Rs. 100 in 1902. The Sabhā asked me to supervise and carry on the search for Hindi Manuscripts, and I have been able to submit three Annual Reports to the Government, the first of which is now in course of publication. As it will be sometime before these Reports are published, I propose to give in the following pages a tabular account of the works I have been able to notice during the past three years, so as to inform scholars of the work that is being done and to solicit their co-operation and sympathy. I am, further, anxious to give publicity to my conclusions about several points connected with the history and literature of India, so that

they may receive due consideration at the hands of scholars and savants. I trust the publication of this paper in the *Indian Antiquary* will serve this purpose.

In the following list the letters A, B, and C, with the number of the notice, indicate that the books were noticed in 1900, 1901, and 1902, respectively. Where the date of the composition of a book could not be ascertained, the approximate date when the author flourished is given in brackets. Incomplete manuscripts are marked with asterisks.

In the Reports submitted to the Government I have given a somewhat detailed notice of each of the books (except Nos. 116 C to 302 C). It contains (1) the name of the book, (2) substance on which the MS. is written, (3) size, (4) lines per page, (5) extent, (6) appearance, (7) character in which the MS. is written, (8) place of deposit, (9) a short note in English, (10) extracts from the beginning and the end of the book, (11) subject-matter, and (12) a note in Hindi.

Besides this information, I have dealt with the salient points of each year's work in a short Report in English. As the Reports are either being printed or under the consideration of the Government, I am sorry I cannot give here any account of the conclusions arrived at by me. But I am sure a perusal of the following statement will give some idea of the work done, and persons interested in it will kindly await the publication of the Reports. I shall feel grateful if scholars will communicate to me their suggestions, if any, on this subject and point out any omissions and mistakes on my part that they may meet with while perusing the following statement or my full Report:—

No. Noți	of ice,	Name of	Author	•	Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
103	A	Achāraja	•••	•••	Viśāpahāra bhāṣā	. 1658		
65	A	Agnibhu	•••	44,	Bhakti-bhaya-hara-stotra.		1796	
77	A	Agra Dāsa		•••	Sri Rāma-Dhyāna-man- jarī.	(1575)	1894	He was the Guru of Nābhā Dāsa, the cele- brated author of the
15	В	Ajabesa	•••	٠	Baghela-vanśa-barnana	1835	•••	Bhaktamāla. Probably this is in
40	C	Ajīta Singha	٠	•••	Durgā-pāṭha bhāṣā		1719	author's handwriting. Remained on the Gaddi of Märwär from 1678
83	C	72 23	•••	•••	Guṇa-sāgara		1712	to 1724 A.D.
84	C	27 29	•••		Niravāņī-dūhā			
85	C	""	•••	•••	Mahārājajī Srī Ajīta Singhajī ra kahyā dūhā.	•••	•••	
86	0	" "	•••	•	Mahārāja Srī Ajīta Singhajī krita dūhā Sri	•••	•••	
87	C	23 79	•••	•••	Thākurān-rā. Bhawānī Sahasranāma	1711	•••	
163	O	" "	•••	•	Gūṇa-sāgara	•••	•••	
5	C	Ananda	•••	•••	Koka-sāra	••.	1714	
79	A	Anandaghan	a	•••	* Ghanānanda Kabitta	•••	••,	He was killed in 1739 in the capture of Mathura by Nādira Sāha. Con- tains 516 verses.

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.		Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
56 B	Ananda Rāma	•	Rāmasāgar	1819		A collection of the poems of several Bhaktas.
84 E	<b>)</b>	•••	Bhagvadgītā	1734	<b>183</b> 6	or several Dilaktas.
133 B	Ananta Dāsa	•••	Nāmadeva ādi ki Parchī	1588		
241 C	,, ,,	••	Sangraha. Pīpājī kī parachī	(1600)	1683	
49 B	Anemānanda	•••	Nātaka dīpa, i.e., Pancha-	1780	•••	
39 C	Ātama Dāsa	•••	daśi bhāṣā. Hari rasa		1724	
258 C	Badanji Chārana	•••	Rasa-gulzāra	(1825)	•••	
32 (	Bāgī Rāma	•••	Jasabhūṣaṇa	33	•••	He wrote these two books jointly with his bro- ther Gādū Rāma.
33 C	,, ,,	•••	Jasarūpaka	•••	•••	
79 C	Bājinda	•••	Rajakīrtana	(1650)	•••	Disciple of Dadu.
59 B	Bakhtāwara	•••	Sunni sāra	1803	1817	He was an inhabitant of Hathras (E. I. R.).
45 C	Balabhadra	•••	Sikha-nakha	(1580)	•••	Probably the brother of Keśava Dāsa.
50 A	Balabhadra Singha	•••	Bārā-māsī	1822		Mahārājā of Nāgode.
82 B	Balabīra	•••	Pingala manaharana	1684	•••	Genealogy— Gadādhara, Bhavarāja, Balimanora- tha, Sankara, Bhagīra- tha, Balabīra.
27 C	,,	•••	Upamālankāra-N a k h a- Sikha-baraņana.	•••	•••	,
28 C	,,	•••	Dampti-vilāsa	1702	•••	
128 C	Bālaka Rāma	•••	Bhaktamāla Chiunī tīkā Sahita.	1776	1870	
6 A	Bālakriṣṇa Dāsa	•••	* Sūradāsajī ke drista kūta Satîka.	(18 <b>3</b> 0)	•••	Disciple of Girdhara Lālajī (1829-1844).
111 A	Balibhadra Miśra	•••	Sikha nakha	(1580)	1750	Probably the same as Balabhadra.
104 A	Banārsī Dāsa	•••	Kalyāna-mandira	•••	• • •	A Jain poet.
105 A	,, ,,	•••	Sādhu-bandanā	•••		
106 A	,, ,,	•••	Mokṣa-mārga-paiḍi	•••	•••	
132 A	,, ,,	•••	Samaya-Sāra-nāṭika	1653	1836	
284 C	Bānkī Dāsa	•••	Sri Hajūrān rā kabitta	(1810)	•••	
109 E	Benī Rāma	•••	Jina-rasa	1722	1745	
98 A	Bhaḍḍlī	•••	Bhaddlī-Purāņa	•••	16 <b>1</b> 2	
135 C	Bhadrasena	•••	*Chhanda-sangraha	•••	•••	

No of Notice.	Name of Author.		Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
69 A	Bhagwāna Dāsa	•••	Bhāṣāmrita	1699	1809	Disciple of Bhayanaka-
29 A	Bhagwatarasika	•••	Ananya-niśchayātmaka grantha.	(1570)	•••	chārya. Disciple of Swami Hari-
30 A	19	•••	Sri Nityabihāri-jugala- dhyāna.	•••	•••	Dāsa (1560).
31 A	"		Ananya-rasikābharana	•••	•••	
32 A	<b>39</b>	••	Niśchayātmaka - grantha-	•••	•••	
<b>3</b> 3 A	,,		Uttarārdha. Nirbirodha-mana-ranjana.	••	•••	
133 A	Bhagoti Dāsa	••	Chetana-karma-charitra	1665	1726	
13 B	Bhawānī Sankara	•••	*Baitāla pachīsī	1814	1838	Son of Laksamana
102 A	Bhūdara Mala	•••	Bhūpāla-choubīsī			Pāthaka.
193 C	Bhūpata		*Kabitta Sri Hajūrān rā	(1810)		Wrote jointly with Ri-
115 C	Bhūpati	•••	*Bhāgwata-daśama-Skan- dha.	1287	1800	jhawāra.
116 A	Bihārī Dāsa		Sambodhi-panchāsikā	1701	1898	
115 A	Bıhārī Lāla	•••	*Bihārī Satsai	(1650)		Very old MS., contains 712 dohās.
27 B	" "	•••	22 32 aee	•••	1718	Oldest dated MS. yet discovered.
8 C	97 99 ***	•••	27 32 to	•••	•••	This MS. belongs to Jodhpur State Library. There is another MS.
102 C	Binodī Lāla		Krişņa-Vinoda	1822		also here dated 1746. Son of Rai Chirounjī Lāla of Udaipur.
123 A	Brahmarāya Mala	•••	Haņuvantā - moṣya - gāmī Kathā.	1559	167ช	or oumpur.
124 A	" "	••	Sripāla-rāso	1573	1635	
118 A	Budhajana	•••	Yogindra-sāra-bhāṣā	1838		
151 C	Chaina Dāsa	•••	Gīta-nātha-jī-ro	(1810)		
83 B	Chaina Rāma	•-	Bhāratha-sāra-bhāṣā	1828	•••	
56 A	Chanda Bardāī	••	Prithīrāja-rāso Mahobā. khanda.	(1190)	1821	Only one canto.
62 A	,, ,,	•••	Prithīrāja chouhāna rāso	,,	1802	Contains 69 cantos.
63 A	27 29	••	Prithīrāja rāso	,,	1588	Contains 65 cantos. Oldest MS. yet discov-
38 B	" "	••	Prithīrāja-chouhūāņa rāso	,,	1822	ered. Contains the first 18 cantos. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.)

No. o		Name of Author.		Name of	Book.		Date of Composition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
39 ]	Char	nda Bardāī	••	Prithīrāja-cho	uhūāņa	rāso	(1190)	1822	Contains 19th to 28th canto. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of
40 ]	3 ,,	, ,,	••.	>>	,,	••	,,	1822	No. 38 B. Contains 29th to 40th canto. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of
41 ]	3 ,,	, ,,	••	"	,,	•••	,,	1822	No. 39 B. Contains 41st to 60th canto. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of
42 ]	3,	, ,,	••	,,	,,	•••	,,	•••	No. 40 B. Contains first 26 cantos.
43 ]	3 ,,	, ,,	••	"	"	•••	"	•••	(As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Contains 27th to 59th canto. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of No. 42 B.
44 I	3 ,,	, ,,	•••	* "	,,	•••	,,	•••	Contains 60th to 66th canto. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of No. 43 B.
45 I	,,	,,	•••	Prithīrāja-rāsā	i	••	,,	•••	Contains 35 cantos. The first is Devagiri and the last Jangama Kathā. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.)
46 I	,,	"	•••	Prithirāja-rāys	asa, Par	t I	?	1868	Contains 38 cantos. It seems to be an altoge- ther new work written on the basis of Chanda's poem. (As. Soc. Beng.
47 I	3 ,,	"	••	"	Part II	•	?	1868	MS.) Contains one canto only. (As. Soc. Beng. MS.) Continuation of No. 46 B.
71 (	,,	***	٠	Prithīrāja-rā vaja Samayo.	s o-K a	n a -	(1190)	•••	Belongs to Jodhpur State
275 (	,,	"	•••	Sanjogită-nem	a-prastā	iva .	,,		Library. Old MS.
26 I	Chan	dana kavi	••.	'Tatwa-Sangyā	•••	•••	•••	1804	
66 A	Chan	draghana	•••	Bhāgavata-sār	a-bāṣā	•••	••	1806	
35 A	Char	ana Dāsa	•••	Neha-prakāśīk	ផ	· ••	1693		
70 I	3 ,,	<b>37</b> •••	•••	Gyāna-Swarōd	aya	•••	(1760)	•••	Born 1703. Died 1781.
71 A	Chatu	ıra Dāsa	•••	Ekādaśa-Skan	da ki bl	ıāşā.	1635	1785	
110 I	3 ,,	,,	•	"	,,		1635	1738	
44 (	Chatt	urabhuja Dāsa	••	Madhu mālatī	rī kath	ā	•••	1780	
93 A	Chhī	hala	••	Pancha-saheli	•••	•••	1518	•••	

No. o		Name of I	Author.		Name of Bo	0 <b>0k</b> .	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
35	$\mathbf{c}$	Chhihala	•••	••	Pancha-saheli		1518	1817	
127	A	Chintāmaņi	***	***	Kavi-kūla-kalpa	ı-taru	(1650)	•••	
37	В	Dādū	•••	•••	Dādūjī-ki bāņī	401 001	(1600)	1764	
118	C	"	•••	•••	Adhyātma-Dād	ūjī-kā	,,		
140	C	77 ***	***	•••	Dādūjī-kā-pada	***	,,	1649	
141	C	,, •••	***	•••	"	•••	,,	•••	
271	o-	,, •••	•••	•••	Samarthāi-ko-A	nga	,,	•••	
293	C	99 ***	***	٠	Swāmi Dādū	Dayāla jī	,,	•••	
88	A	Dāmau	••	•••	ko Krita. Lakśmana Se mavatī Kathā.	ena Pad-	1459	1612	
63 4	$\mathbf{c}$	Damedara D	āsa		Mārkandeya Pu		(1660)	1790	
30	C	Daulata Rān	n <b>a</b>	•••	Jalandhara-Nāt	ha-jī-ro-	(1810)	1815	
64	A	Dayāla Dāsa	٠	••	gūņa. Rāņā-Rāsā	•••	(1620)	1619	
<b>3</b> 0	В	,, ,,	***	٠.	,,	•••	,,	1888	
50	В	Dayā Rāma		•••	*Dayā-Vilāsa	•••	1722		
114	C	72 <b>5</b> 9	•••	•••	Dayā Vilāsa	•••	1722		
110	A	Dayā Sāgara	a Sūri	••	Dharma Datta-	Charitrā		1671	
<b>5</b> 3	A	Deva or Dev	a Datt	a	Așțajāma	•••	(1620)	••	
7	C	,, ,,	,,	•••	Rasa-vilāsa		"	•••	
121	C	" "	99	••	Așțājāma	- •••	,,	•••	
63	В	Deva Datta	•••	•••	Drona-parva-bh	ลีรุลิ	1761	1868	
57	В	Devakinanda	na	***	Sarfaraja-chand	rikā	1786	•••	
1	C	Devī Dāsa	•••	•~•	Rājanīti	300 000	(1685?)	1801	
82	C	" "	•••	••.	Rājanīti-prāstāv vitta.	rika ka-	,,	1815	The same as No. 1 C, but
120	A	Dharmamand	lira Ga	ņi	Pravodha-Chint	āmaņi	1684	1817	containing more verses.
8	A	Dhruva Dās:		•••	Vrindābana Sat		1630	•••	
9	A	" "	•••	•••	Singāra-Sata	*** 10.			
10	A	" "	•••		Rasa-ratnāvali	•••	***	4	
11	A	,, ,,	•••	]	Neha-manjarī	•••	•••	•••	
	ı			ı	•		1	ı	

No. Notic	of ce.	Nar	ne of	Autho	or.	Name of E	300 <b>ķ.</b>		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
12	A	Dhruva	Dās	a	***	Rahasi-manjarī	••	•,,	1642		
13	A	,,	"	•••	•••	Sukha-manjarī	•••	••	040	•••	
13	A	,,	,,	•••	•••	Rati-manjarī	•••	•••	190	•••	
13	A	,,	,,	•••	•••	Bana bihāra	•••		•••	•••	
13	A	,,	7*	•••	•••	Ranga bihāra	•••	••	•••	•••	
13	A	,,	••	•••	•••	Rasa bihāra	•••	,	•••	•••	
13	A	,,	,,	••	•••	Anan dadasā-vin	ıoda	••	***	•••	
13	A	,,	"	•••	,***	Ranga vinoda	•••	•••	•••	•••	
13	A	,,	,,	•••	•••	Nirta-vilāsa	•••	و•م	.,,	•••	
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21	A	,,	"	•••	•••	Sabhā-mandalī			1625		
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136	A	Dwārkā Dāsa		ma. Mādho-nidāna-bhāṣā		1864	
101	A	Dyānati	•	Eki-mana-bhāṣā		•••	
3	A	Gadādhara Bhaṭṭa	<b></b> .	Gadādhara Bhaṭṭa kī bānī		•••	
32	С	Gāḍu Rāma	••	Jasa-bhúṣaṇa	(1825)	•••	See Bāgī Rāma.
33	C	" "	••	Jasa-rūpaka	•••	•••	
26	A	Ganga		Sudāmā-charitra	•••	•••	
95	o	Gariba Dāsa	•••	Adhyātma bodha	(1650)	(1649)	
136	В	Gesānanda		Kundaliyā Rājā Padan Singh jī rā.	,,	1717	
201	C	Gobardhana Chāraņ	a	Kūndaliyā rājā Padama	,,	1717	
2	A	Gokula Nätha	•••	Sinha jī rā. Nāma ratna mālā koṣa	1814	•••	
23	A	Gopāla	•••	Prahlāda charitra	(1600)	•••	Was a disciple of Dādū.
25	A	79	•••	*Dhrūva charitra	•••	•••	
28	A	,,		Rājā Bharatha charitra	•••	•••	
215	C	Gopāla Dāsa		Mōha viveka	••	1649	
236	C	" "	•••	Parchai Swāmi Dādū ji kī	•••	1649	
61	С	Gorakha Nāth <b>a</b>		Gorakha bodha	(1350)		
143	C	77 71	••	Datta Gorakha Samvāda.	,,		
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166	C	<b>&gt;</b> 7 <b>&gt;</b> 1		Gyāna Siddhānta joga	,,	•••	
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299	C	37 yy	•	Virāța Puraņa	"	•••	
114	A	Gourī	•••	Âditya kathā badi	•••	1738	

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94	A	Guņa Sāgara	ı		Sri Satraha bheda Pūjā		•••	
84	A	Gwāla Kavi	•••	•••	Rasikānanda	•••	1893	Fl. 1815.
88	В	17 97	•••	••	Jamūnā-lahari	1822	•••	The MS. is in the author's
89	В	,, ,,	•••		Sri Kriṣṇajú-ko - n a kh a - sikha.		•••	own handwriting. Do. do.
90	В	<b>37</b> 37	•••	•••	Gopi-pachchīsī	1822.	•••	Do. do.
113	C		Farāsī	sa	Anjuli Purāņa	•••		
135	A	Vaidya. Hansarāja	•••	•••	Sri Saneha Sāgara	•••	1791	
96	A	Hararāja	•••	•••	Dholā Māravaņi Chaupahī	1550	1612	
37	A	Harī Dāsa	•••	•••	Pada	(1560)	•••	
135	В	yy yy	•••	•••	Bhartari-vairāgya	(1550)	1807	
171	С	" "	•••		Hari Dāsa jī ko grantha.	•••	1649	
64	C	Hari Dāsa N	iran <b>jan</b> ī		Dayālajī kā pada	•••		
130	a	Hari Dāsa S	ādhu		Bharathari Gorakha Nā-	•••	•••	
123	C	Harirāya	•••	•••	tha Samvāda. Bhagavadī ke lakṣaṇa	•••	•••	
146	С	",	•••	•••	Dvidalātmaka swarúpa vi- chāra.	•••	•••	
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199	C	<b>,,</b>	•••	••	chıntana bhāva. Krişņāvatāra swarūpa Nirņaya.	•••	•••	
276	С	,,	***	•••	*Sāton swarūpa kī bhā-	•••	•••	
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61	В	Harivallabha	•••	•••	bhāva. Sangīta-bhāṣā	•••	•••	
90	$\mathbf{c}$	79	•••	•••	Bhagvadgītā bhāṣā		1801	
206	c	Hema Chāra	ņ <b>a</b>	•••	Mahārāja Gaja Sinhajī rā	•••		
265	c	Imrata Rāms	a Sādhū	•••	guņa rūpaka. Sāda Imrata Rāma ni- ranjanī rī arjī nakala.	(1810)	•••	
29	С	Jagaji	•••	•••	Ratana Mahesa dasota ba-	1658	1765	
104	C	Jana Mukun	da	٠.,	chanikā. Bhanvara gīta		•••	
105	С	Janārdhana 1	Bhațța	•	Vaidya Ratna		1849	

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214 B	Jana Nātha	• • • • •	••	Moha Marada Rājā kathā.	kī	1719		2 copies.
111 C	Jasa Rāma	•••	••	Rāja nīti-vistāra	•••	1757		
71 B	Jaswanta Si	ngha	•••	Aparochchha-Sidhänt	а	•••	•••	Mahārājā of Jodhapur.
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46 C	"	,,	•••	Siddhānta Sāra	•••	•••	•••	
47 C	9.5	1>	••	Bhāṣā Bhuṣaṇa		•••	•••	
48 B	Jata Mala	•••	•••	Gorābādala kī Kathā	•••	1623		
103 C	Jayagopāla (	Singha	•••	Tulsī Sabdārtha		1817	1850	
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142 A	37 37	,		Vāmana Kathā		•••	•••	•
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Flowered-silver; s. v. Rownee (b), 583, ii.
Flowered silver; ann. 1800: s. v. Rownee (b),
Fluces; ann. 1630: s. v. Gosbeck, 298. i.
Flux aigu; ann. 1782: s. v. Mort-de-chien,
  451, i. ·
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Fly; s. v. 271, i, twice, 799, i; ann. 1810: s. v.
  271, i; ann. 1816: s. v. 799, i.
Fly-flap; ann. 250: s. v. Yak, 744, ii.
Flying; s. v. Fox, Flying, 273, ii.
Flying-Fox; s. v. 271, i, 799, i.
Flying-fox; ann. 1813 and 1882: s. v. Flying-
  Fox, 271, ii.
Fo; ann. 1806: s. v. Buddha, 91, i.
Foetidia Mauritiana; s. v. Stink-wood, 652, i.
Foful; ann. 1759: s. v. Cacouli, 769, ii.
Fogaça; s. v. Fogass, 271, ii.
Fogass; s. v. 271, ii.
Fogo; s. v. Fogass, 271, ii.
Foist; ann. 1513: s. v. Winter, 867, i; ann.
  1518: s. v. Gallevat (d), 277, i; ann. 1526:
  s. v. Sunda, 659, ii; ann. 1529: s. v. Tana,
  681, ii; ann. 1534: s. v. Reshire, 848, i;
  ann. 1535: s. v. Satigam, 854, i and ii; ann.
  1536: s. v. Pandarāni, 509, i, twice; ann.
  1553: s. v. Surat, 665, i; ann. 1584: s. v.
  Sanguicer, 853, ii; ann. 1605: s. v. Sanguicel,
  853, ii, twice.
Foistes; ann. 1570: s. v. Budgerow, 91, ii.
Foker; ann. 1604: s. v. Fakeer, 265, ii, 798, i.
Fokien; s. v. Amoy, 12, i, s. v. Satin, 602, 1;
  ann. 1687: s. v. Amoy, 12, ii.
Folausha; s. v. Peshawur, 531, ii.
Fo-lau-sha; ann. 400: s. v. Peshawur, 531, ii.
Fo-ling; ann. 650: s. v. Jack, 337, i.
Folio Indo; ann. 1690: s. v. Malabathrum,
  415, i.
Folum Indicum: s. v. 271, ii.
Folium indicum; 67, ii, footnote, s. v. Mala-
  bathrum, 414, ii, twice.
Folium indu; ann. 1563: s. v. Malabathrum,
  415, i, 3 times.
Follepon; ann. 1682: s. v. Punch, 846, i.
Follis; s. v. Dīnār, 245, i.
Folosomia; ann. 1533: s. v. Melique Verido,
  823, i.
Fondoux; ann. 1653: s. v. Khan (b), 812, ii.
Foochow; ann. 1879: s. v. Bahaudur, 37, ii.
Foojadar; ann. 1809: s. v. Foujdar, 273, i.
Foole sugar; ann. 1765: s. v. Gruff, 303, ii.
Fool-Rack; ann. 1754: s. v. Pariah-Arrack,
  515, ii.
Fool-rack; ann. 1598: s. v. Nipa (b), 480, i.
Fool Rack; s. v. Fool's Rack, 272, i; ann. 1603:
  s. v. Arrack, 26, ii; ann. 1673: s. v. Fool's
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Rack, 272, i.

Fool's Rack; s. v. 272, i.

Foot-boye; ann. 1630: s. v. Peon, 528, ii.

Foozilow; s. v. 272, ii.

Foras; s. v. Foras Lands, 272, ii; ann. 1852: s. v. Foras Lands, 273, i, 3 times.

Forasdārs; s. v. Foras Lands. 272, ii, twice.

Foras Lands; s. v. 272, ii, 3 times.

Foras Roads; s. v. Foras Lands, 272, ii.

Foreign Hong; s. v. Hong, 320, ii.

Forest Road; s. v. Foras Lands, 272, ii.

Forlorn; s. v. Falaun, 265, ii; ann. 1824: s. v. Falaun, 265, ii.

Formicarum; ann. 1328: s. v. Ant, White, 23. i.

Formigas brancas; s. v. Ant, White, 23, i.

Formosa; s. v. Factory, 264, ii, s. v. Typhoon, 722, ii, 723, i; ann. 1868: s. v. Paddy-bird, 834, ii.

Formosan; s. v. Typhoon, 722, ii, twice.

Foro; s. v. Foras Lands, 272, ii; ann. 1808: s. v. Salsette (a), 595, i.

Foros; s. v. Foras Lands, 272, ii.

Fort Marlborough; ann. 1763 and 1764 (twice): s. v. Slave, 856, ii.

Fort St. David; s. v. Factory, 264, i, s. v. Scavenger, 606, ii, s. v. Brahminy Butter, 767, i; ann. 1727: s. v. Canhameira, 772, i; ann. 1746: s. v. Chelingo, 777, i; ann. 1747: s. v. Sepoy, 613, i, s. v. Sepoy, 855, i.

Fort St. David's; s. v. Sepoy, 613, i; ann. 1781: s. v. Guingam, 288, i; ann. 1785: s. v. Long-cloth, 395, ii.

Fort St. George; 's. v. Factory, 264, i, s. v. Madras, 406, ii, 407, i, s. v. Scavenger, 606, ii, twice, s. v. Triplicane, 716, i; s. v. Coromandel, 784, i. s. v. India of the Portuguese, 808, ii, ann. 1670: s. v. President, 845, ii, 3 times; ann. 1672: s. v. Madras, 407, ii; ann. 1673: s. v. Patna, 520, i, s. v. Pattamar (a), 521, i; ann. 1676; s. v. Overland, 834, i; ann. 1677; s. v. Banyan, 761, i, s. v. Betel, 765, i, s. v. Hindostanee, 806, ii; ann. 1678: s. v. Palankeen, 836, ii; ann. 1679: s. v. Tumlook. 864, ii; ann. 1688; s. v. Cot, 205, i; ann. 1699: s. v. Castes, 132, ii; ann. 1711: s. v. Goa Stone, 290, ii; ann. 1726: s. v. Madras. 407, ii; ann. 1727 : s. v. Madras, 407, ii, twice, s. v. Nabób (a), 468, i, s. v. Pulicat, 558, i; ann. 1767: s. v. Circars, 780, ii; ann. 1780: s. v. Pagoda (c), 834, ii; ann. 1807; s. v. Gentoo, 281, ii; ann. 1809: s. v. Jagheer, 341, ii; ann. 1841: s. v. Peshwa, 532, ii.

Fort St. George Consultations; s. v. Gingerly, 801, i, s. v. Pattamar, 842, i; ann. 1679: s. v. Gentoo (a), 800, ii; ann. 1680: s. v. Porgo, 845, i.

Fortunate Islands; s. v. Oojyne, 487, i.

Fort Vellalas; ann. 1844-45: s. v. Cusbah, 219, ii.

Fort William, s. v. Buxee, 103, ii, s. v. Cadet, 107, i, s. v. Chuttanutty, 170, i, twice, s. v. Factory, 264, ii, s. v. Gardens, 278, ii, s. v. Mohur, 438, ii, s. v. Regulation, 575, ii, s. v. Sunderbunds, 660, ii, s. v. Adawlut, 753, i, s. v. Chowdry, 779, i, s. v. Kidderpore, 814, i, s. v. Supreme Court, 858, ii, s. v. White Jacket, 866, ii; ann. 1698: s. v. Zemindar, 748, i; ann. 1706: s. v. Harry, 806, i; ann. 1727: s. v. Pucka, 555, ii; ann. 1754-58: s. v. Palankeen, 504, i; ann. 1758: s. v. Hidgelee, 314, ii; ann. 1792: s. v. Chowringhee, 779, ii; ann. 1827: s. v. Ticca, 700, i.

Fota; s. v. Podár, 844. ii.

Foțadār; s. v. Podár, 844, ii.

Foujdah; ann. 1824: s. v. Foujdar, 273, ii.

Foujdar; s. v. 273, i; ann. 1702: s. v. 273, i; ann. 1759: s. v. Chucklah, 779, ii; ann. 1810: s. v. 273, i; ann. 1824: s. v. 273, ii.

Foujdarry; s. v. 273, ii, s. v. Adawlut, 4, i; ann. 1790: s. v. Cazee, 776, i.

Foujdary Adawlut; s. v. Foujdarry, 273, ii, s. v. Adawlut, 753, i.

Foule-sapatte; ann. 1791: s. v. Shoe-flower, 629, i. Foule-sapatte; ann. 1791: s. v. Shoe-flower, 629, i.

Four-anna; s. v. Anna, 22, ii.

Fourmi; ann. 1713; s. v. Ant, White, 23, i.

Fousdar; ann. 1683 and 1690; s. v. Foujdar, 273, i.

Fouzdaar; 771, i, footnote; ann. 1727: s. v. Hoogly, 322, i.

Fowra; s. v. 273, ii.

Fox, Flying; s. v. 273, ii.

Foy-Foe; ann. 1696: s. v. Compound, 782, i.

Foyst; s. v. Sambook, 595, ii; ann. 1688: s. v. Catur, 135, i.

Frail; s. v. Frazala, 273, ii, 799, i; ann. 1290; s. v. Orange, 491, i, twice; ann. 1510: s. v. Frazala, 273, ii, twice; ann. 1793: s. v. Frazala, 799, i.

Frances-chi; ann. 1384: s. v. Firinghee, 269, i, twice.

Franchi; ann. 1340 and 1384: s. v. Firinghee, 269, i; ann. 1436: s. v. Firinghee, 799, i, twice.

Franci; ann. 1503: s. v. Ormus, 493, i, 3 times. Francia; ann. 1350: s. v. Firinghee, 269, i. Franck; ann. 1678: s. v. Caffer, 770, i. Francolin; s. v. Black Partridge, 75, i, s. v. Chickore, 148, ii.

Francolinus vulgaris; s. v. Black Partridge, 75, i. Francos; ann. 1440: s. v. Firinghee, 799, i; ann. 1498: s. v. Firinghee, 269, i; ann. 1616: s. v. Firinghee, 269, ii. Franghi; ann. 1610: s. v. Firinghee, 269, ii. Frangistan; ann. 1665: s. v. Macheen, 820, ii. Frangue; ann. 1553: s. v. Moor, 446, i, twice. Frangui; ann. 1648: s. v. Firinghee, 269, ii; ann. 1665: s. v. Mugg, 455, ii; ann. 1791: s. v. Firinghee, 270, i.

(To be continued.)

#### MISCELLANEA.

#### MATRICETA'S MAHARAJAKANIKALEKHA.

To the article on Mātriceṭa and the Mahārāja-kanikalekha, published in Vol. XXXII. above, p. 345 ff., may I be allowed to add the following notes, which it was not practicable to insert in the article itself?

- 1. In printing the text, I have preferred to follow the blockprint even where it is not quite consistent: thus I have given rjes su or rjesu, &c., indifferently.
- 2. In verses 9 (kyis), 19 (yi), 28 (bden), and 46 (mes) the translation follows the reading given in the notes.
- 3. To Professor L. de la Vallée Poussin, who kindly read the paper in proof, I am indebted for a number of suggestions adopted in the paper, and also for the following:—
- (a) Pp. 346-7: Prof. Poussin suggests that the passage from the Varnanārhavarnana proves not that Mātriceṭa had been a heretic, but that he had indulged in vain rhetoric. The further context will, I believe, decide this point.
- (b) P. 349: Further references to the simile of the tortoise are to be found in Burnouf's 'Lotus de la bonne Loi,' p. 431; Kern, Saddharmapundarīka, p. 423; Spence Hardy, 'Manual of Buddhism,' p. 442; Bodhicaryāvatārapañjikā (Bibl. Ind.), p. 9.9 and IV. 20.
- (c) V. 3: Can  $gdams \cdot kyi =$  those who have need of advice'?
- (d) V. 4: 'Having purified the quarters by their virtues, great men are nevertheless not ashamed to yield to their hearts, like friends'?
- (e) V. 11:  $mkhas \cdot pa \cdot dag \cdot bsdu \cdot bar \cdot dgyes \cdot pa =$  \$istasamtosana; but? We might certainly render  $mkhas \cdot pa \cdot dag \cdot bsdu \cdot bar$  by 'unite the learned.'

- (f) V. 12: dpyad pa la ni, &c. = 'exercise yourself wisely in reflection'; but?
- (g) V. 21:  $de \cdot yi \cdot bsam \cdot pa$ , &c. = 'whose respect is equal to his intelligence and who desires happiness.'
- (h) V. 30: upon bral·bas depends all that precedes. Dbye = bheda. [The translation of this verse is highly doubtful: probably chad·pas·bcad must mean 'to punish,' and gan·duhanmi = na kadācit.]
  - (i) V. 54c: read nes par certainly?
- (k) V. 55d: 'has attained the naiskarmyu (mi bgyi ba)'?
  - 4. I may add the following:-
- (a) V. 25:  $smra \cdot ba$  may mean 'speaker' rather than 'speech.'
- (b) V. 88b: This line is too short by one syllable.

F. W. T.

27th August, 1903.

#### CALAMINA.

In Vol. XXXII. above, p. 149, some remarks were offered on attempts made by certain authors to localise "Calamina," the place at which St. Thomas the Apostle is alleged, in certain ecclesiastical writings, to have suffered martyrdom; and it was suggested, for reasons there given, that perhaps Carmana (Karmān) in Carmania might be the place really intended. The Right Rev. A. E. Medlycott, however, points out to me that, if there had been any tradition that the first burial-place of the apostle had been within Carmania, such tradition would have certainly been known to the Nestorians, who had churches

there in early times. That they had churches there, is shewn by a letter "ad Simonem episcopum Ravardsciri metropolitam," written by Jesuab, Patriarch of the Nestorians 650-660, a Latin translation of which is given by Assemani, Bibl. Or t. 3, p. 130. The following passages may be quoted:—

"Ubinam ingens Maruanitarum (civitatis Maru
"[Merv]) populus qui quum neque gladium neque
"ignem aut tormenta vidissent, solo medietatis
"bonorum suorum amore capti, velut amentes,
"e vestigio in barathrum perfidiae, hoc est, in

"aeternam perniciem ruerunt." The writer goes on to say all demed the faith, except two priests, who, as he remarks, "instar perustarum titionum "ex flamma impietatis evadentibus, etc."

"Ubinam etiam sunt Caramaniae totiusque "Persidis sanctualia? quae non per adventum "satanae, aut jussu regum terrae, aut mandatis "praesidis provinciarum, excisa corruerunt, sed "exigui unius vilissimi daemonis flatu, etc."

W. R. P.

20th August, 1903.

#### NOTES AND QUERIES.

#### THE CHAUKANDU.

"1. I am told that the custom of chaukanda see ante, Vol. XXXI. p 359) has the following local names in Kûlû, though I have never myself heard any of them used:—

Mandî ... banjhârâ beţâ Saiâj ... jharâ betâ Kûlû ... dagôlṛu."

#### E. A. JOSEPH, C. S. (Kůlů).

- 2. In Simúr, if a widow living in her late husband's house, and being possessed of his estate, gives birth to a male child in her deceased husband's house, such child is legitimate and is called jhátá or jhatógrá He succeeds the widow and is regarded as the son of his mother's deceased husband. Even more than one such child is legitimate. This custom prevails amongst the hill-men only and is not recognized in the Nåhan Tahsîl and the Dun.
- 3. In Chambâ, the custom of chaukandú still exists in the Barmaur and Chaurâh Wizârats. The Barmauris recognize the legitimacy of the

children born of a widow after the demise of her husband, provided the widow continues to reside in her husband's house and that she has worn a red dôri (tape) in the name of her husband's chuld (oven) or darat (axe). There are widows in the Barmaur Wizârat who have not performed this ceremony, and are still in possession of their husbands' land and property, but the Gaddîs consider that their rights are disputable. They can enjoy this privilege only as long as the bârâdarî do not make any fuss about it. In the Chaurâh Wizârat this practice also obtains, but no formal ceremony is necessary. It is, however, essential that the widow should continue to live in her husband's house and that the child is begotten in his house. In Barmaur such male issue is called chaukandú and in the Chaurâh Wizarat randput (widow's son) and rand-dhiu (widow's daughter) respectively.

H. A. ROSE.

Supdt. of Ethnography, Punjab.

Nov. 18th, 1903.

#### BOOK-NOTICE.

#### CATALOGUS CATALOGORUM, PT. III.1

The second part of Professor Aufrecht's great work appeared in 1896, and the present one carries us forward to July, 1903. At this stage commendation of a book so well-known and so indispensable to all Sanskrit scholars would be superfluous. Suffice it to say that it displays all the clearness and accuracy of its predecessors. Amongst many other entries based on lists of Sanskrit manuscripts which have been published since 1896, this part also includes the names of the works in the following important collections, — the Ashburner and Burnell MSS. of the India Office.

the MSS. of the Indian Institute at Oxford, the Libraries of the Calcutta Sanskrit College and of the Asiatic Society of Bengal (so far as catalogues have been published), the Libraries of the Universities of Edinburgh, Würzburg, Leipzig, and Tubingen (1865—1899, including the famous Paippalāda-śākhā MS. of the Atharva-vēda), and the Tod and Whish Collections of the Royal Asiatic Society. It is therefore of considerable interest in itself apart from its connexion with its valuable predecessors.

G. A. G.

Camberley, 7th Nov. 1903.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Catalogus Catalogorum. An Alphabetical Register of Sanskrit Works and Authors. By Theodor Aufrecht. Part III. Printed with the support of the Academies of Göttingen, Leipzig, Munich and Vienna. Leipzig, Otto Harrassowitz, 1903. Pp. iv, 161. 4to. Price, Marks 10, say Rs. 7-8.

#### EPIGRAPHICAL NOTES.

#### BY H. LÜDERS, PH.D.; ROSTOCK.

THE following notes, which I hope to continue from time to time, are a small contribution towards the reading and interpretation of the most ancient epigraphical records of India. For Nos. 6, 14. 22, and 23, I have been able to use a photograph kindly placed at my disposal by Prof. Kielhorn: on the margin is written, in Dr. Fleet's hand: — "Indo-Scythian stones which belonged to Gen. Sir Alexander Cunningham;" and it shows the front sides of the stones which bear the inscriptions mentioned above, and two other stones with inscriptions which will be dealt with later on. Except for that, I have had no fresh materials to work at, such as impressions, rubbings or photographs, but have had to rely on the reproductions published in the Archeological Survey Reports, the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, the Indian Antiquary and the Epigraphia Indica. It is hardly necessary to point out that these reproductions are of very different value. Whereas the photo-lithographs in the Epigraphia Indica may be considered a fairly reliable base for a critical examination of the text, the reproductions published in the older works are of course more or less untrustworthy; and perhaps it will be wondered at that I should have commented at all on inscriptions of which only such imperfect copies were available. If nevertheless I have done so, this is largely due to an external reason. By advice of some friends interested in Indian epigraphy, and in analogy to the lists compiled by Prof. Kielhorn, I am preparing a list of the Indian inscriptions prior to about A. D. 400, which will contain also a short abstract of the contents of each inscription. It was chiefly in order to render this list as free from errors as possible, also with regard to inscriptions of the kind described above, that I have ventured at revising them and publishing the results in the present shape. I am fully aware that by a re-edition of these inscriptions most of my remarks will be superseded. The sooner this will happen, the better it will be, and I can only hope that the authorities of the Indian Museums, to whose care these precious documents of the ancient history of the country are entrusted, will find a way of making them accessible to scholars in a form satisfying modern requirements.

No. 1. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 4; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 201, No. 11, and Plate.

The inscription is mutilated. The last words of the first line are transcribed by Bühler  $Vajanagarit[\delta \acute{s}\acute{a}]$ . After  $\acute{s}\acute{a}$  another akshara is visible on the photo-lithograph, and there can be no doubt that  $\acute{s}\acute{a}$  is to be restored to  $\acute{s}\acute{a}kh\acute{a}t\acute{o}$ , although both the  $\acute{s}a$  and the kha seem to have somewhat abnormal forms. The editor, however, was certainly wrong in transcribing the third akshara of the name of the  $\acute{s}\acute{a}kh\acute{a}$  by na. As a comparison with the na in  $\acute{s}\acute{s}\acute{i}nz$  in line 2, in  $Grahach\acute{s}\acute{t}\acute{o}na$  and  $Grahad\acute{a}s\acute{o}na$  in line 3 will easily show, it is really na. The straight vertical at the top of the letter is nothing but the serif, whereas the lingual na has a slightly bent top-line; see the words  $V\acute{a}ranadt\acute{o}$   $gan\acute{a}t\acute{o}$  in line 1. The spelling of the word  $Vajanagarit\acute{o}$  would thus be quite the same as in another Mathurâ inscription edited by Bühler,  $Ep.\ Ind.\ Vol.\ I.\ p.\ 387,\ No.\ 11.^1$  But it is just possible that the actual reading is  $V\acute{a}jranagarit\acute{o}$ ; in the photo-lithograph, at any rate, the first akshara looks exactly like the first akshara after the date which Bühler himself read  $v\acute{a}$ , and the stroke below the pa can hardly be a second ja, as Bühler thought, but seems to be the beginning of a subscript ra. However, these strokes may after all be merely accidental just as the stroke below the na, and an examination of the impression or of the stone itself would be necessary to settle this point.

Nos. 2 and 3. — Mathura Jaina image inscriptions of Sam. 5 and 18; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 201, No. 12, and p. 202, No. 14, and Plates.

The dates of these two inscriptions, which unfortunately are badly mutilated, read according to Bühler: . . . sya va 5 gri 4 di 5, and . . . sha 10 [8] va 2 di 10 1. Bühler considers the va

In a third inscription also, ibid. p. 397, No. 34, we find Vajanagariya sakhaya with the dental nasal.

of the first inscription to be an abbreviation of varsha, and remarks in a note that in the second inscription also sha perhaps ought to be restored to varsha. If these views should prove correct, the two inscriptions would stand quite alone, no other inscription of this period at Mathurâ employing the word varsha instead of sanvat or sanvatsara in the date.

Under these circumstances it would not seem out of place to draw attention to the extreme precariousness of Bühler's readings. If the supposed sha of the second inscription is compared with the sh and the s of the word Arishtanémisya in line 2 of the same text, it will be seen that in its left portion it far more resembles the s than the sh. The small horizontal stroke at the lower end of the right vertical, which alone gives the letter the appearance of a sha, may be accidental, especially as the engraving of the whole inscription is rather carelessly done <sup>2</sup> Sa, of course, would stand for sanvatsaré as in Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 395, No. 28; Vol. II. p. 201, No. 11; p. 202, No. 13, &c.

In the case of the first inscription Bühler's reading is even more objectionable. In my opinion there can be no doubt whatever that the abshara immediately before the numeral is mé. Before mé stands a ligature, the lower portion of which cannot be a subscript ya, because in that case the curve would be open to the right, but clearly is cha. We thus are led to read . . . . chamé 5, which entails almost with necessity the restoration [samvatsaré pañ]chamé 5. However, the upper portion of the ligature does not look much like a ña,3 but it may very well be pa, and pchamé may be an abbreviation for pamchamé, just as svatsaré in the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 384, No. 5, is an abbreviation for samvatsaré. Other instances of this tachygraphic mode of writing in the Mathurâ inscriptions are Dévatyá for Dévatyá, Gupta Inscriptions (Corp. Inscr Ind. Vol. III.), p. 263, No. 63, and sdha, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 387, No. 9; sdhi, ibid. p. 392, No. 24; salham, bid. Vol. II. p. 206, No. 26, for saddham.

# No. 4. — Mathurâ Jaina image inscription of Sam. 5; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 381, No. 1, and Plate.

Bühler read this inscription as follows :--

- A. 1 . . . . . dê<br/>[va]putrasya Ka[ni]shkasya sam 5 hê 1 di 1 êtasya pûrvv<br/>[û]yam Kotţiyâtê gaṇâtê Bahmadâsikâ[tê]
  - 2 [ku]lâto [U]chênâgaritô śâkhâtô sêthi . iha . . sya . i . i . isênasya sahachari-Khudâyê Dê[va] . .
- B. 1 pâlasya dhi[ta] .....
  - 2 Vadhamânasya prati[mâ] II

A glance at the photo-lithograph will show that instead of sahachari we have to read sadhachari. The same term is found in two other Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Incl. Vol. I. p. 388, No. 11 (Datisya śiśniyê Mahanandisya sadhachariyé Balavarmayê Nandayê cha śiśniyê Akukuyê nirvvarttanâ), and Vol. II. p. 201, No. 11 (Puśyamitrasya śiśni Suthishâyê śiśni Sihamitrasya sadhachari . . .), while its masculine counterpart appears in the form of śraddhachara or shadhachara in the Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 383, No. 4 (bṛihamitavâchaka cha gaṇina cha Ja . . mitrasya . . . . aryya-Ôghasya śishya-gaṇisya aryya-Palasya śraddhacharô râchakasya aryya-Dattasya śishyô vâchako aryya-Sihâ tasya nivvarttanâ), p. 391, No. 21 (vâchakasya aryya-Hastahastisya śishyô gaṇisya aryya-Maghahastisya śraddhacharô vâchakasya aryya-Dêvasya nirvvarttanê), and Vol. II. p. 203, No. 18 (vâchakasy=âryya-Ghastuhastisya śishyô gaṇisy=

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Another instance of a sa closely resembling a sha is found in Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 204, No. 19, where Buhler himself read êtasya.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The letter na occurs twice at Mathurâ, in the inscription edited below, No. 23, and in Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 210, No. 38, which Bühler refers to the Gupta period.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Buhler considers the sign which I read m, to belong to the next line and transcribes it by va, but this, at any rate, is impossible Compare the siddham in Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 206, No. 27, where the m is put below the dilha in exactly the same manner. For a doubtful case, see Bühler, ibid. p. 209, note 7.

åryya-Manguhastisya shadhacharô váchakô aryya-Dêvô tasya5 nirvvartaná). It will be noticed that in all these passages the sadhachari and the śraddhachara is further specified as the pupil of some monk, and this holds good in the present case also, the photo-lithograph leaving no doubt that the word before Sénasya is to be restored to sisini. Between sákhátó and sisini there are six aksharas, the first two of which are distinctly séthi. The next two seem to be niha, the fifth is quite illegible, and the last is certainly sya, so that the whole may be transcribed as séthi[niha] . . sya. For two reasons it appears to me quite impossible that sethi should have any connection with Sanskiit érêshthin or a derivative of it, as Bühler thought.6 Firstly, Sk. śréshthin cannot possibly become séthi with a dental th in any Prakrit dialect. Secondly, a woman who is characterised as the sisini of some male person and the sadhachari of another, must have been a nun, as in the Jaina inscriptions at Mathuiâ these terms are applied to nuns only and never to lay-sisters. Now it goes without saying that a nun cannot be called a śreshthini, 'the wife of a banker.' As far as I see, there are two possibilities of explaining the passage. We have to read either Sethi[niha] . . sya śiśini, in which case Sèthi nha] . . would be the name of Khuda's teacher, or séthi [ni Ha] . . sya śiśini, in which case sethini would be an epithet of unknown meaning referring to Khudâ, while the teacher's name would be Ha . .

At the end of A, after  $Khuddy\ell$ , Buhler reads  $D\ell va$ .., and combining this with the beginning of B, p'alasya dhita, translates: 'by Khudâ, daughter of Dêva.. pâla.' Such a statement would be highly improbable by itself, no other Jama inscription of this class at Mathurà containing a specification of the relationship of a monk or a nun. And on closer inspection it will be seen that the reading D'eva.. cannot be upheld. The first akshara is not d'e, but a  $n\iota$ , with the left half of the base-stroke effaced, and the second akshara is not va, but clearly vva. After nivva the photolithograph has a distinct ta, possibly with a superscript r. Nivva[r]ta, of course, is to be restored to nivvartan'a, the last letter in the line having disappeared as in the preceding one. It thus appears that the donation was made by a lay-woman, the daughter of Pâla, and that the nun Khudâ only acted as her spiritual adviser, which in every respect agrees with the usual state of things.

There remain some minor points. The second alishara of the name of the king is a little blurred, but what is still visible of it in the photo-lithograph decidedly points to its having been ri, and not ni. There is altogether no certain instance of the spelling of the word with the dental nasal at Mathurâ. In the two inscriptions edited by Buhler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 391, No. 19, and by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 31, No. 4,8 the reading Kanishkasya is beyond all doubt, and in the one edited by Cunningham, ibid. No. 5, the facsimile at any rate shows distinctly the same reading.9

In the last line of the inscription Bühler seems to have overlooked the d-stroke in the vd, which is quite distinct in the photo-lithograph.<sup>10</sup> On the other hand, I am unable to detect the d-stroke in md.

With these emendations the text will run as follows: -

- A. 1<sup>11</sup> Dêvaputrasya Ka[ṇi]shkasya sa[mi] 5 hê **1** di 1 êtasya pûrvv[â]yam Kottiyâtô gaṇâtô Bahmadâsıkâto [ku]-
  - 2 lûtô [U]chênâgaritô śâkhâtô Sêthi[niha]..sya śi[ś]ini Sênasya saḍhachari Khudâyê nirva[r]ta[nâ]

<sup>5</sup> See below, No. 16.

<sup>6</sup> In his translation of the inscription he calls Khuda 'consort of alderman (sêthi) . . . . . sêna.'

There is no reason why the ku should have stood at the beginning of line 2, as assumed by Buhler.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See below, p. 37, No. 6.

<sup>9</sup> See below, No. 25.

<sup>10</sup> The reading Vådhamånasya is found also in the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 393, No. 27, though Buhler gives Vadhamånasya in his transcript.

<sup>11</sup> Buhler wants to restore siddham in the beginning of the inscription, but no traces of the word are discernible.

B. 1 Pâlasya dhita . . . . ya . . . û<sup>12</sup> . . . . .
2 Vâdhamanasya prati[mâ] . . . . . . .

"In the year 5 of Dêvaputra Kaṇishka, in the first (month of) winter, on the first day, — on that (date specified as) above, — an image of Vâdhamana (Vardhamána) [was deducated by] . . . the daughter of Pâla, the daughter-in-law of . . . , at the request of Khuḍâ (Kshudrā), the saḍhachari of Sêna, the female pupil of Sêthinha . ., 13 out of the Koṭṭiya gaṇa, the Bahmadâsıka (Brahmadásika) kula, the Uchênâgari (Uchchânāgari) śākhā."

#### No. 5. - Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 5;

edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rsp. Vol. III. p. 30, No. 2, and Plate.

Cunningham read this inscription, which is engraved on three sides of the pedestal of a Jaina statue: —

- 1. . . Bodila bhedha Vâsu Devâ pravi . . Siddhah Sam 5 He 1 Di. 12 Asya purvvaye koţ . . Sragihato
- 2. Sarvvasatwāhīta Sukhaya . . . ji-to Brahmadāsika to ubhāna karita . . . Sati. Cunningham added no translation to his transcript, but simply stated that the inscription 'records some gift by a lady named Brahmadasi.' In his re-examination of the inscription in the Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. I. p. 176, Buhler, with the help of a rubbing, corrected the reading of the middle portion of the first line to siddha = sa 5 he 1 de 10 2 asyd purvedye Kot[iya], and justly remarked that the sides had been wrongly numbered, and that the second ought to be the first the third the second, and the first the third. And in Vol. IV. p. 171 of the same journal he corrected also the middle portion of the second line to [ku]ldtô Brahmad asikatô Uchandkaritô. This last correction admits of a little improvement. If Bühler's reading were accepted, the word kula would stand before the proper name to which it belongs, whereas in all other inscriptions it invariably follows the proper name. And Bühler himself seems to have been not quite sure of his reading, as he thinks it necessary to observe that the la is slightly disfigured on the facsimile. The facsimile, however, shows as plainly as possible a  $n\hat{a}$ , and not a  $l\hat{a}$ , and there can be no doubt that  $n\hat{a}t\hat{o}$  is to be restored to  $gun\hat{a}t\hat{o}$ . The word ganátô must have immediately followed Kot[t]i[ydtô], the name of the gana, and this proves that Cunningham has wrongly numbered not only the sides, but also the lines on each side. The first line of the first side is followed by the second line of the same side, after which comes the first line of the second side, &c. The whole inscription reads: \_\_\_14
  - A. 1 Siddha[m] II Sa 5 hê 1 di 10 2 asy[â] purvv[â]yê Kot[t]i[yâtô] 2 [ga]nâtô Brahmadâsikâtô Uch[ê]nakâ(ka)ritô [śâkhâtô]
  - - 2. sa nida (?)
  - C. 1 . . . i bôdhlabhê ê Vâsudêvâ puvi . . . . . . .
    - 2 . . sarva-sat[vâ]na[m] h[1]ta-sukh[â]yê .

In this arrangement the general wording of the inscription in no way differs from the usual pattern. After the date follows the statement of the gaņa, kula and śākhā of the monk at whose request the donation was made, and the phrase that it was made for the benefit of all beings, forms the conclusion. The only peculiarity of this inscription is the omission of the word kulāto after Brahmadāsikātō, which, undoubtedly, is due to a mere oversight of the engraver. The middle

<sup>12</sup> Restore . . . sya vadhû.

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$  Or, possibly, 'the  $s\acute{e}thini$  (?), the female pupil of Ha . . . ,

<sup>14</sup> All signs which do not appear in the facsimile, but may be inferred from a comparison with the numerous similar inscriptions at Mathurâ, have been included in brackets. The na which Buhler reads in Uchanakaritā is not warranted by the facsimile. On the other hand, the facsimile has distinctly ka, although, of course, the a-stroke may be merely accidental.

portion, which contains the name of the donor, cannot be made out from the facsimile. The rest may be translated as follows: —

No. 6. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 9; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 31, No. 4, and Plate, and by Bühler. Vienna Orient. Journ. Vol. I. p. 173. No. 2.

Bühler's restoration of this inscription is excellent, and his text only wants a few small corrections. The photograph of the front side of the stone lent to me by Prof. Kielhorn shows that the reading of the king's name actually is Kanishkasya as in the facsimile, with the lingual n. The facsimile, again, has clearly the correct form ganāto, not ganāto, and . . lāta, which is to be restored to kulāto, not kulāto. Of more importance is the reading of the name of the kulā. Bühler transcribed Cunningham's facsimile as tanibha . . , and, misled by the corrupt form Vānija of the Kalpasūtra, corrected this to Vāniyato. The facsimile, however, shows very distinctly a tha under the supposed ta. We are thus led to read Tthāniyāto, and although such a form would not be unaccountable in itself, I consider it unlikely, because the name is nowhere else spelt in this way, but exhibits in its beginning either sth (Sthāniyāto, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 385, No. 7; p. 391, No. 21; Sthānikiyō, ibid. p. 386, No. 8, sṭ (Sṭānikiyāto, ibid. Vol. II p. 203, No. 18). or ṭh (Thāniyāto, ibid. Vol. II. p. 383, No. 3; p 392, No. 22; Thaniyāto, ibid. p. 395, No. 28; Thānyāto, ibid. Vol. II. p. 202, No. 15). Under these circumstances I think it more probable that the t is merely due to a fault of the designer, and that the real reading was Sthāniyāto.

No. 7. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 25; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 384, No. 5, and Plate.

Bühler read the second portion of this inscription, after the statement of the nirvartana: -

(l. B. 2) . . . [Nâ]dia[ri]ta Jabha[ka]sya vadhu Jaya[bha]tṭasya kumṭûbiniya Raya-giniye [vu]suya

and translated: "a vusuya (?) (was dedicated) by Rayagini, the daughter-in-law of Jabhaka, from Nândıgiri (?), (and) wife of Jayabhatţa."

The photo-lithograph allows us to correct the first word with absolute certainty. Instead of ari the plate shows distinctly syadhi. The reading Nádisya dhita is quite in accordance with the common practice of these inscriptions to describe the relationship of the donatrix in the order 'daughter of N. N., daughter-in-law of N. N., wife of N. N.'; see, e. g., Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 2; p. 383, No. 4; p. 388, No. 11; Vol. II. p. 207, No. 32; p. 210, No. 37, &c. The town of Nândigiri therefore is to be struck out from the list of the towns of Ancient India.

Also with regard to the translation of the words rayaginiye vusuya I differ from Bühler. I think, it will be admitted that rayagini has not the appearance of being a proper name, and I would suggest to take it as an appellative in the sense of 'the wife of a rayaga,' in analogy to such terms as vihârasrâminî, 'the wife of a vihârasvâmin' (Gupta Insers., Corp. Inser. Ind. Vol. III. p. 263), mahâsênâpatinî, 'the wife of a mahâsênâpati' (Arch. Surv. West. Ind. Vol. IV. p. 114, No. 16), sarttavâhini, 'the wife of a sârthavâha' (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 395, No. 29). Rayaga would be the true Prakrit equivalent of Sk. rajaka, 'washerman or dyer.' Other members of the artisan class

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Perhaps line B. 2 is to be restored to sya mrva[rtan6].

16 See below, No. 16.

<sup>17</sup> Compare also the similarly formed feminines sishini, sisini, sisini (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 2; p. 384, No. 5; p. 385, No. 7; p. 388, No. 12; Vol. II. p. 206, No. 28, &c.) and antévâsikini (ibid. Vol. II. p. 204, No. 21).

<sup>18</sup> The transition of j into y is found in the Mathura inscriptions also in lohavaniya (Sk. lohavanija), Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 383, No. 4.

are found among the donors of images in the Mathurâ inscriptions, *Ep. Ind.* Vol. I. p. 391, No. 21; Vol. II. p. 203, No. 18; p. 205, No. 23. 19

If it is admitted that rayazini is an appellative noun, it follows that the proper name must be contained in the following word which Bubler read vusuya. The ending -uya indicates that the word is the gen sing, of an û-stem, which in these inscriptions generally ends in -uyê, and occasionally in -ûyê or ûya; corpare vadhuyê, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 387, No. 10; p. 392, No. 24; p. 396, No. 30; Vol. II. p. 207, No. 32; vadhûyê, Vol. I. p. 388, No. 11; vadhûya, Vol. II. p. 205, No. 22. That the spelling -uya is not found hitherto, is certainly merely accidental, as the û- and î-stems show the corresponding forms in -aya, -iya by the side of the common forms in -âyê, -ayê, -îyê; compare aya-Sanzamikaya sisiniya, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 388, No. 12; Jitâmitraya, ibid. Vol. II. p. 203, No. 16; Dêriya, ibid. Vol. II. p. 210, No. 37. More difficult is the settling of the first syllable of the name. It would seem easy enough to correct Vusuya into Vasuya, especially as the diminutive Vasulâ actually occurs as a woman's name in the Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 2, and p. 388, No. 12, but the photograph does not seem to countenance such an alteration, and for the present it will perhaps be safest to rest satisfied with Bühler's reading.

There is still another point to command attention. Builder thought vusuya to be the last word of the inscription; in my own interpretation one more word would be required to furnish the necessary supplement of the genitive Vusuya. Now, the photograph shows distinctly the upper part of the word danam below the syllables gana in the beginning of line B. 2.

I therefore propose to read the second portion of the inscription :-

B. 2 . . . . . . Nâdisya dhita Jabha[ka]sya vadhu Jaya[bhaṭṭa]sya kumṭûbinîya²o rayaginiyê²¹ [Vu]suya

3 [dânam]

and translate: -

"... the gift of Vusu (?), the wife of a dyer, the daughter of Nati (Nandin), the daughter-in-law of Jabhaka, the wife of Jayabhahta."

No. 8. — Mathura stone inscription of Sam. 28; edited by Growse, *Ind. Ant.* Vol. VI. p. 217, No. 1, and Plate.

As far as I see, it is generally assumed that Kanishka's reign extended until the year 28 of the era used in the northern inscriptions, and that in the following year he was succeeded by Huvishka. The evidence for these suppositions is chiefly derived from the inscription quoted above. In dealing with the intricate questions of the history of this period the greatest amount of exactness and discretion is indispensable, and it therefore seems to me not superfluous to point out that the assumption of the year 28 being the final year of Kanishka's reign is not only wholly unfounded, but in all probability actually wrong.

The latest reliable date of Kanishka is the year 18 in the Manikyala inscription (Journ. As. Ser. IX. Vol. VII. p. 8); the first indisputable record referring to Huvishka is a Mathura inscription dated in Sam. 33 (Ind. Ant. Vol. VI. p. 217, No. 2). It is true, there is another inscription at Mathura (Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 206, No. 26) mentioning the maharaja Dêvaputra Huksha as he is called here, and supposed to be dated in the year 29, but the inscription is in a pitiably fragmentary state, and even if the reading êkunati[śu] should prove correct, it would still be quite uncertain whether this word should be taken as referring to the number of the year or, e. g., of the day, so that for historical purposes the record is of no account. Of even less consequence is the Mathura inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 385, No. 6, the date of which reads maharaja . . . . . . shkasa sam 20 9 hé 2 di 30 asma kshuné. No trace has been left of the aksharas preceding shkasa, and these syllables may be restored to [Kani]shkasa as well as to [Huvi]shkasa. The state

<sup>19</sup> Compare Buhler's remarks, Vienna Or Journ. Vol. IV. p. 324.

<sup>21</sup> Also the readings rayajinîyê or rayaginiyê would be possible.

<sup>29</sup> Or, perhaps, kumtūbiniya.

of things is very similar in the case of the inscription of Sam 28. It is only a very short fragment which reads: —

. . . . shkasya râjya-sa[m]vatsarê 20 8 hêmanta 3 di . . .

Here, too, there is no reason whatever why shkasya should necessarily be restored to [Kani]ihkasya. The restoration [Huvi]shkasya or [Hu]shkasya would suit equally well, to say the least, and there is even one little point to recommend the last-mentioned reading as the most plausible one. Before shkasya the photo-lithograph distinctly shows the remains of a letter, consisting of a stroke slighty bent to the right. It cannot possibly be the rest of a ni or ni, nor is it likely to be the lower end of the vertical of a ki, because this is generally either straight, or, on the contrary, turned to the left. It looks exactly like a subscript u and therefore [Hu]shkasya, which closely resembles the Hukshasya of the inscription mentioned above, appears to me the most probable reading. Of course, in that case we should have to read [Huvi]shkisya also in the inscription of Sam. 29. But until fresh materials are brought to light, I would myself not attach too much weight to these restorations, and I shall be satisfied with having shown that, as far as our evidence goes at present, we can safely claim only the years 5-18 for Kanishka and 33-60 for Huvishka, though the latter probably was on the throne already in 28.22

No. 9. — Mathura Buddhist image inscription of Sam. 33; edited by Growse, *Ind. Ant.* Vol. VI. p. 217, No. 2, and Plate.

Although this inscription seems to be in a fair state of preservation, the editor has not succeeded in making out more of it than the date and the aksharas bhikshusyx...hasya... takasya.... Euddhasya. He tells us besides that Cunningham took the word ending in takasya to be tripitakasya. Unfortunately the reproduction of the inscription on the accompanying plate is on so small a scale as to make a complete deciphering of the text almost impossible. As far as I can see, the text runs:—

- 1 Mahâr[â]jasya dêvaputrasya Huv[i]shkasya sam 30 3 gri 1 di 8 bhikshusya [Maha]sya trêpiṭakasya antêv[â]s[i]n[î]yê bhikshuṇ[î]yê trê[pitikâ]yê Buddha . . . . yê
- 2 bhâginêyîyê bhi[kshu]nîyê Dha . . . nîyê Bôdhisat[tv]ô p[r]atithâ[p]ι[tô] . . . . . . . . . sahâ mâtâpitihi . . . . . . . .

"In the year 33 of mahārāja Dêvaputra Huvishka, in the first (month of) summer, on the eighth day, a Bôdhisattva was set up by the nun Dha...nî, the sister's daughter<sup>23</sup> of the nun Buddha... who knew the tripiṭaka, the female pupil of the monk Maha (?) who knew the tripiṭaka, ... together with her father and mother."

The reading of the bhikshu's name, Mahasya, is very doubtful. On the other hand the restoration of trê.... yê to trêpiţikâyê seems to me pretty certain, though, of course, it cannot be asserted that this was the exact form of the word. The term trêpiţaka or Sk. traipiţaka is found again in a Kanheri inscription<sup>25</sup> and in the Set-Mahet inscription mentioned below, and nuns who were versed in the three piţakas are spoken of also in the Dijavamsa, XVIII. 13; 19; 33.

This inscription is of considerable importance for the history of Buddhist art. There are comparatively very few ancient Buddhist statues with inscriptions accurately stating the character of the represented person. In his valuable paper on an ancient inscribed Buddhistic statue from Srâvasti, 26 Dr. Bloch has collected all the cases known to him. He enumerates five inscriptions in which the figure is called an image of Buddha, of Sôstri, of Bhagavat, of Bhagavat Sâkyamuni, or of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> I would here acknowledge my indebtedness to Dr. Fleet for some of the above suggestions. He drew my attention to the improbability of the reading [Kani]shkasya in the inscription of Sain. 23. But he differs from ma in the final restoration of the word.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Compare the Kudå inscription No. 5 (Cave-Temple Inscriptions, No. 10 of the brochures of the Archæological Survey of Western India, p. 6), where a Buddhist nun is described as the bhôginêyê of two monks.

<sup>24</sup> It may have been also irêpitakîyê, irêpitakîyê or irêp tıkiniyê.

<sup>25</sup> Arch. Surv. Rep. W. Ind. Vol. V. p. 77, No. 6.
26 Journ. As Soc. Beng. Vol. LXVII. Part I. p. 274 ff

Bhagavat samyak-sambuddha sva-mat-aviruddha, and two — an inscription from Buddhagayâ<sup>27</sup> and the Set-Mahet inscription which forms the special subject of the paper — where the statue is described as that of a Bôdhisattva. To the latter class the present inscription is to be added.

A detailed comparison of the three Bodhisattva statues is impossible for the present, as no photographs or drawings are available either of the Set-Mahet or of the Mathurâ image, and Mr. Growse's remarks, moreover, are rather brief, yet I should like to draw attention to the following points. According to the statements of Growse, Bloch and Cunningham, the three figures are all of the same material. The Mathurâ statue is 'in red sandstone,' the Set-Mahet statue is 'made of a sort of reddish sandstone, the same material which the Mathurâ sculptures of the Kushana period are made of,' and the stone of which the Gaya statue is made is 'a sandstone like that of Mathura, and not from a local quarry.' In size also the three figures seem to be similar. The seated Gayâ figure is 3' 9" high by 3' 1" in breadth across the knees; the standing Set-Mahet figure is 11' 8" in height; for the Mathurâ figure no exact measurements are given, but Mr. Growse speaks of a 'large' figure. Besides the three statues apparently agreed in attitude. Of the Mathurâ figure only the crossed legs remain, which show — to use Mr. Growse's own words — that 'the left hand of the figure had rested on the left thigh, the right being probably raised in an attitude of admonition.'28 The Gayâ figure is a little better preserved. Of the left arm only the upper portion is left, but its direction and remains of the hand, distinctly visible on the phototype, prove that it originally rested on the left thigh. The right arm is entirely gone, but from the absence of any marks on the body or the right thigh it may be safely concluded that it was raised up without touching the body. The Set-Mahet statue also has lost the right arm, but Dr. Bloch remarks that 'we may fairly well conclude from the analogy of similar statues that the missing right arm of the figure was represented lifted up in an attitude which is usually called that of "teaching," while the left hand rested on the hip, holding up the end of the long vestment.' Whether the Mathurâ figure also had the right shoulder bare like the other two figures, cannot be decided. There would thus seem to be only one point of difference: the Mathurâ and Gaya figures are seated, whereas the Set-Mahet figure is standing.

The close resemblance between the three statues sufficiently shows in my opinion that they are the work of the same school of sculptors, and that they cannot be very widely separated from each other in time. Probably the Set-Mahet figure is the oldest, as Dr. Bloch describes the characters of the inscription as belonging to the Northern Kshatrapa type. The Gayâ figure, on the other hand, is certainly the latest of the three, though perhaps not so much later than the others as I)r. Bloch seems to think. At any rate, the advanced form of the sa in the Gayâ inscription, which he takes as a criterion for its late origin, is found also in the Mathurâ inscription; compare mahôrájasya dévayutrdsya and  $sam.^{29}$ 

Considering the scantiness of the evidence, the question which particular Bôdhisattva is represented by the three statues cannot be touched at present. But whether they be meant for Maitiêya or one of the numerous other Bôdhisattvas, they certainly bear witness to the wide spread of the Mahâyânist Bôdhisattva worship during the first century of our era.

No. 10. — Mathura Jaina elephant capital inscription of Sam. 38; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 32, No. 9, and Plates V. and XIV., and by Bloch, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. LXVII. Part I. p. 276, note 2.

This inscription is engraved on the base of the large figure of an elephant surmounting the bell capital of a pillar, and records the setting up of a Namdiriéala by the éréshthin Rudradâsa, the son of the éréshthin Sivadâsa, for the worship of the Arhats. The last phrase characterises the donor as a member of the Jaina community.

<sup>27</sup> Cunningham, Mahabadhi, p. 53, and Plate XXV.

<sup>28</sup> Mr. Growse adds that another mutilated figure of similar character, but without inscription, was found on the same spot, and that these were the only specimens he had with the hands in this position, in all the others the

<sup>29</sup> A more detailed examination of the Gaya inscription I reserve to some future occasion.

The only word in this inscription which presents any difficulty, is Nandivisâla. Cunningham translated it by 'this elephant (or great Nandi);' in Dr. Bloch's opinion it may mean that the pillar was 'as big as Nandin,' or it may be a technical term of unknown meaning. None of these suggestions seems plausible to me. Nandivisâla can hardly be an appellative with the meaning of elephant, nor can it be rendered by 'the great Nandin,' as this would be viśâlô Nandi in the language of the inscription, and Nandin, moreover, is the name of Siva's bull and not of an elephant. Against Dr. Bloch's view it may be urged that it would scarcely be appropriate to compare the circumference of a pillar to that of a fabulous bull, and that such a fanciful comparison, at any rate, would be out of place in a record which for the rest is as dry and laconic as possible.

The placing of the inscription immediately below the elephant makes it highly probable, I think, that it has a special reference to that figure, and that Naindwisdla therefore is the proper name of the elephant represented in the sculpture, and not a technical term for a sort of pillars. What makes me believe in the correctness of this interpretation, although I am unable to point out an elephant of that name in Jaina literature, is the fact that Nandwisdla occurs as an animal's name in the Pali canon of the Buddhists. In the Suttavibhanga, Pach. II. 1, the Buddha tells a story of a bull at Takkasila who could draw a hundred loaded carts, and the name of this extraordinary animal is given as Nandwisala. The same story was made up into a Jâtaka (No. 28), called the Nandwisalajātaka after the name of its hero who is identified here with the Master in a former birth. In the present limited state of our knowledge about the Jaina Nandwisala, it would be quite unsafe and useless, of course, to enlarge on his possible relation to his Buddhist namesake. But the name itself is of interest as proving the existence of Saivism in the fourth century B. C., for it seems to me beyond any doubt that the etymological meaning of the name is 'as big as ('Swa's bull') Nandin,' and not 'Great-Joy,' as translated by Mr. Chalmers.<sup>30</sup>

## AN ABSTRACT ACCOUNT OF THE SEARCH FOR HINDI MANUSCRIPTS FOR THE YEARS 1900, 1901 AND 1902.

#### BY SYAM SUNDAR DAS, B.A.

(Concluded from p. 27.)

No. of Notice.	Nan	ne of A	uthor.				Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.		
35 B	Kabīra	Dāsa	•••	•••	Sākhī		•••	••	(1400)	1764	
<b>1</b> 08 B	,,	"	•••		Rāma-s	āra	•••	• •			
<b>52</b> C	59	,,	•••		Kabīra	jī kā j	pada	•••			
53 C	,,	,,	•••	•••	Kabīra	jī kī s	ākhiyā	•••		1683	
54 C	,,	19			Kabīra	jī ke	lohe	•••			
184 C	,,	,,			Kabīra	jī ke	pada	••		1649	
185 C	,,	,,	•••	•••	Kabīrs	jī kī	ramayan	· • •		,,	

<sup>30</sup> Jútaka, transl. under the editorship of E. B. Cowell, Vol. I. p. 71. From the appellation Namdiviśâla and the donor's and his father's name in the Mathurâ inscription Dr. Bloch draws the conclusion that 'Jainism apparently already in those early times was as much mixed up with Saivism as its greater rival Buddhism.' Perhaps this assertion goes a little too far. Rudradâsa may have been a convert from Saivism to Jainism which would satisfactorily account for his name, and if my explanation of Namdiviśâla should be accepted, this name would presuppose the knowledge of Śiva's váhana, but in no way as an integral part of the Jaina religion.

No. of Notice.	Name of Author	r.	Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- scripts.	Remarks.
186 C	Kabīra Dāsa		Kabīra jī kī sākhī .	•-	•••	1649	
187 C	2 <b>)</b> 77 ***	•••	,, ,,	•	•••	,,	
188 C	,, ,,		Kabīra jī ko krita .		•••	•••	
249 C	,, ,,	•••	Rāga Sorathā kā pada .		•••		2 copies.
29 B	Kaibāṭa	•••	Ananta-rāma-sā k h a la-k	εī	1797		
181 C	Kāji Kadana Bh	agata.	bārtā. Kāji kādana kī sākhī .			1649	
68 B	Kālī Dāsa	•.	Rādhā-Mādhava-M il a n	a-		1791	
105 B	Karnīdāna	•••	budha-vinoda. Virada-siṇa-sāgara .	.	(1730)	•••	Abhaya Singha (1704- 1748) of Mārwār was
111 C	Kāsima Sāha	•••	Hansa Jawāhira		1842	1901	his patron.
14 B	Kāṣtajihvā Swām	ıī	Padāvalī-sāta-kānda .		1840	1841	
195 C	Kesarī Singha		*Kesari Sinhajī kā Kur	n-	•••	•••	
52 A	Keśava Dāsa	•••	daliyā. Kavi Priyā		•••	•••	
55 A	,, ,,	•••	Vigyānagītā		(1600)	1790	
183 C	,, ,,	•••	Kavi priyā		•••	***	
252 C	,, ,,	•••	Rāmachandrikā	•••	•••		
34 C	Keśava Dāsa	•••	Bhamara Battīsī	•••	•••	1787	Not the famous Keśava
20 C	Keśava Dāsa Chā	raņa	Mahārāja Gaja Sinha l	kā	1624?	1723	Dāsa.
301 C	,, ,,	•••	guņa rūpaka bandha. Viveka Vārtā	•••	1624	•••	
134 C	Khema Dāsa	•••	Sukha-sambāda	•••	•••	1822	
94 C	,, ,,	•••	,,	•••	•••	1651	
277 C	Khemji	•••	Khema jī kī chintavaņī.	•••	•••		
<b>5</b> 6 C	Kilola	•••	Dholā mārū rā dohā	•••	•••		
59 A	Kiśorī Dāsa	•••	Pada	•••	*		
11 C	Kripā Rāma	•••	Mohammada Gajālī Kitā	iba	•••	1817	
52 B	Kriṣṇa Dāsa	•••	Ţīkā on Bihārī-satsaī	٠.,	(1720)	1780	
74 A		Lachhi-	Karunābharaņa-nāṭaka	••	(1600)	1686	
62 C	rāma,	», ···	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	•••		1715	
83 A	Krisna Kavi Ka	lānidhi.	Vritta Chandrikā	•••		1753	

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.	· Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.			
72 A	Kulpati Miśra	Droņa-parva		1815				
57 A	Kuśala Miśra Pāṭhaka.	Gangā-nāṭaka	<b>17</b> 69	1846				
4 A	Kutabana	*Mrigāvatī	1503	•••				
21 C	Lakşmî Nātha	Rāja Vilāsa	1826	•••				
23 C	,, ,,	Bhajana Vilāsa	,,	•••				
10 B	Lāla Dāsa	Itihäsa-sāra-samuchchaya	1586	1776				
32 B	,, ,,	Avadha Vilāsa	1643	•••				
112 A	Lāla-kalānidhi	Nakha-sikha	•••	17th century				
26 C	Lālachandra	Itihāsa bhāṣā	1586	1683				
78 B	Mādhava Dāsa	Karuņa-battīsī	(1780)	•••				
80 B	Mādhava Dāsa Chāraņa.	Guņarāma-rāso	1618	1744				
43 C	Mādho Rāma	Sakta bhakti prakāśa	(1780)					
72 C	,, ,,	Sankar pachchīsī	,,					
87 B	Madhuarī Dāsa	Rāmāśwamedha	1775	1881				
104 C	,, ,, .,	Sri Rādhāramana vihāra	(1630)	•••				
104 C	,, ,,	mādhurī. Bansī baṭa vilāsa mādhur	,,	***				
104 C	,, ,,	Utkanthā mādhurī	,,	•••				
104 C	,, ,,	Vrindābana keli mādhurī.	,,					
104 C	,, ,,	Vrindābana vihāra mādhu	-,,					
104 C	,, ,,	rī. Dāna mādhurī	,,	•••				
104 C	,, ,,	Māna mādhurī	***	•••				
153 C	Magaji Sevaka	. Gita Sevaka maga rā	(1810)	•••				
137 C	Mahādāna Chāraņa	Chhanda Jalandhara nā tha jī rō kahyā.	- ,,					
62 B	Maheśa	. * Hammira-rāso		1804				
54 A	Malika Muhammada	. Padamāvatī	1540	1690				
24 E	3 ,, ,,	. ,,	. "	1822				
25 F	3 ,, ,,	. ,,	. "	1701				
53 I	3 , ,	. ,,	. ,,	1785				
	1	1	•	-	1			

No. of Notice		Name of Author.				Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
108 (		Malika Muhammada				Akharāvaṭa		(1540)	<b>18</b> 86	
132 I	3	Manik	a Dās	a		Kabitta-pravandha	•••			
122 A	A	Manoh	ara	•••		Dharma Parikṣā	•••	1718	•••	
13 (		Manoh	ara Dā	isa	•••	Jasa ābhuṣana Chandr	ikā	(1810)		
<b>5</b> 8 ]	В	_	ara D	āsa Nir	an-	Khata-praśni-nirnaya	•••	•••	1766	
75 ]	В	janī. Māna	Singha	٠		Ţīkā on Biharī Satsaī	•••	<b></b>	1766	
24 (	۵	,,	,,	•••	•••	Jalandhra nāthajī rā ch	ari-	(1810)	•	
31 (	٥	"	,,	•••		tra grantha. Nātha charitra	••			
60 (		"	"	•••	•••	Sri Nāthajī rā duhā	•••		•••	
77 (	0	Māna i	Singha	٠	•••	*Rāga Sāra	•••			
78	c	,,	,,	•••	•••	Näthapraśansā	••			
<b>2</b> 00	c	1)	"	•••	•	*Kriṣṇa Vilāsa	••			
207	c	79	"	•••	•••	*Mahārājā Māna Sing kī banāvata.	haj	i		3 copies.
223	C	**	,,	•••	•••	*Nāthajī kī bāņī	••	•••		2 MSS.
224	С	93	,,	•••		*Nāthajī rā duhā	••		1819	
225	Q	,,	,,	•••	•••	*Nātha kīrtana	••		•••	
226	C	,,	,,	•••	•••	*Nātha kīrtana	••			
<b>2</b> 27	C	,,	,,	•••	••	Nātha Mahamā	•			
229	C	,,	,,	•••	•••	*Nātha Purāṇa	•			
230	C	,,	"	•••	••	*Nātha Sanhitā	•		'	•
256	C	,,	,,	•••	••	Rāma Vilāsa	•			
40	A	Mati	Rāma	***	•••	Rasa rāja	•	(1650		
67	В	,,	"	•••	••	,,	•	.,	1791	
58	A	Mihī	Lāla	•••	•••	Gurū-prakārī bhajana		(1650	)	
109	C	Mira	Muha	nmada	••	Indrāvata	•	1850	1902	1157 A. H.
<b>24</b> 9		1		***	•.	. * Rāgasoraṭhā kā pad	a,		•••	
5	A	Moha	ana Dā	isa	••	*Swarodaya-pavana chāra.	- V	i- <b>1</b> 630		
<b>7</b> 9	В	Motī	Lāla	•••	••	. Ganeśa Purāņa	•	(1533	?)	
		-				•		1	ı	I

No. of Notice	Nar	ne of A	uthor.		Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
85 A	Muni I	Lā⊽aņy	a		Rāvana-mandodarī	Sam-	•••	1612	
269 C	Murata	Rāms	ı		vāda. Sādhān Sri Múrata	rāma	•••	•••	
267 C	Murlīr	āya	•••	•••	jī kā pada. Sādhā Mahārāja rāma jī rā pada.	Murlī	•••		
112 B	Nāgarī	ī Dāsa	•••	•••	Utasava-mālā	•••	•••	1885	He was the son o Mahārāja Rāja Singh of Rúpanagar, and hi
								-	royal name was Mahā rāja Sāvanta Singha.
<b>1</b> 13 B	,,	,,	•••		Bihāra-chandrikā	•••	1731		
114 B	,,	,,		•••	Bhora-līlā	•••	***	•••	
115 B	,,	,,	•••	••	Majalisa-mandana	•••			
116 B	,,	,,	•••	•••	Nikunja-vilāsa	•••	1737	•••	
117 B	,,	,,	•••	•••	Bana-jana - praśansā	-pada-	1762		
118 B	,,	,,	•••	••	pravandha. Braja - sambandha -	nāma -			
119 E	3,	,,	•••	•••	māla. Chhūṭaka-dohā	•••			
120 E	3 ,,	,,	•••	•••	Jugala-bhakti-vinod	a	1751	•••	
121 I	3 ,,	,,	•••	•••	Prāta-rasa-manjarī	•••			
121 I	в "	٠,	•••	••	. Bhojanānanda-aṣṭal	ка		•••	
<b>1</b> 21 ]	в "	"	•••	••	. Jugala-rasa-mādhu	rī			
121	в "	,,		••	. Phūla-vilāsa				
121	в "	,,	***	••	. Godhana-āgama	••			
121	в "	,,	•••		Dohanānandāṣṭaka	••		•••	
121	В "	,,	•••	••	Lagnāṣṭaka	••		***	
<b>1</b> 21	в "	,,	•••	••	. Phāga-Vilāsa	••	.  •••	•••	
121	в "	"	•••	••	. Grīsma-Vihāra	••		•••	
121	в "	,,	•••	••	Pāvasa-pachīsī	••		•••	
121	в "	,,	•••	•	Arilāṣṭaka	• •		•••	
122	в "	,,	***	•			1		
123	в "	,,	•••		. Tîrthânanda-grant	ha .	1753	3	
124	в "	,,	•••	•	Bhakti-maga-dîpil	ĸā.	1742	5	

40						
No of Notice.	Name of Author.		Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manuscript.	Remarks.
125 B	Nāgarī Dāsa	В	Braja-sāra-grantha	1742		
126 B	» » » · · ·	R	kaina-rūpā-rasa	•••		
127 B	,, ,,	s	Swajanānanda-grantha	1745	•••	
128 B	,, ,,	F	Bāla-Vinoda	1752	•••	
129 B	,, ,,	F	Rāsa-rasa-latā	•••	•••	
130 B	3) 11 **	1	Miscellaneous poems		1897	
131 B	,, ,,	I	lska-chamana		•••	
65 C	Nāmadeva	1	Nāmadeva jī kī sākhī 👑	•••	1683	
217 C	,, ,	1	Nāmadeva jī kā pada 🛚	•••	1649	
249 C	,, •••	1	Rāgasoratha kā pada		•••	
218 C	Nānaka		Nānikajī kī sākhī	(1500)	1649	
<b>1</b> 1 B	Nanda Dāsa		Dasama-skandha-bhāgvat	a (1567)	1776	
69 B	,, ,	•••	Panchādhyāi		1892	
58 C	17 17 ***	•••	Anekārtha-manjarī nām māla.	а		
209 €	,, ,,	•••	*Māna manjarī nāma māl	ā		
126 A	Nanda Rāma	•••	Nanda-rāma Pachīsī .	1687		
155 C		Jața-	Gorā Bādala rī bāta .		•••	
48 (	mala. Narhara Dāsa	•••	Dasama Skandha Bhāṣā.	(1650	)	
49 (	,, ,,	•••	Rāmacharitra kathā kāl bhasundī Garuḍa san vāda.		•••	
50 (	,, ,,		Ahilyā pūrva prasanga .	., ,,	•••	
51 (	, ,		Narsingha avatāra kathā.	"	•••	
88	c " "		Avatāra Çharitra .	,,	1776	
90.	A Narpati Vyāsa	•	Bīsaldeo-rāsā	1298	3 1612	
89 .	A Nārāyaṇadeva	•••	Harichanda püräna katlı	ā 1396	5   1612	
22	A Narottama	•••	Kathā Sudāmā	(1570	0) 1814	•
64	B Navala Rāma	•••	Nawala-sāgara		•••	
34	A Nayanasukha	***	. Vaidya-manotsava	159	2	

No. of Notice	Name of Author.		Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
138 A	Neta Singha	•••	Sārangadhara Sanhitā	1751	1865	
24 A	Padama Bhagata	•••	Rukminī jī ko vyahavalo	•••	•••	
92 A	,, ,,		,, ,,	•••	1612	
1 B	Padmākar Bhaṭṭa		Rāma-rasāyana-Bālakānda	(1815)	•••	This MS. was made in the
2 B	., ,,		,, Ayodh <b>y</b> ā Kānḍa.	•••	•••	
3 B	,, ,,		"Ārņya Kānḍa …	•••	1817	
4 B	,, ,,	•••	" Kişakindhā and	•••	1810	
5 B	,, ,,	•••	Sundara Kāndas. " Lankā and Ut-	•••	1817	
85 B	,,	۰. م	tara Kanḍas. Iśwara-pachchīsī	•••	1836	
6 C	,, ,,	•••	Jagata vinoda	1815	•••	
92 C	Parmānanda	••	Paramānanda dāsa jī kā	•••	1736	
142 C	,,	•••	pada. Dāna Līlā		•••	
137 A	Parmasukha	•••	Sinhāsana Battīsī		1848	
173 C	Parsa Rāma	•••	Hari Yaśa bhajana			
75 A	Parsu Rāma	•••	Vairagya-nirṇaya	(1660)	•••	
78 A	Pratāpa Singha	•••	Sneha Sāgara	1795	<b>1</b> 801	Mahārājā of Jaipur.
262 C	21 27	•••	*Rekhtā			
281 C	ļ	•••				
39 A	Prema Sakhī	•••	Joga Grantha.  Kavittas	(1734)		
87 A	Prithīrāja Rathora	••	Sri Krişņa deva-rukmin belī.	(1560)	1612	The celebrated prince o Bīkāner, who attended the Court of Akbar.
55 B	Prīyā Dāsa		Bhakta-māla-ras-bodhinī tīkā Sahita.	1712		the Court of Lindar
129 C	,, ,,		Bhakta māla ṭīkā Sahita.	1712	1778	
65 E	Purana Dāsa	•••	Bānī	(1830)		
45 A	Raghurāja Singha	٠.	*Sundara Sataka	1847		Mahārājā of Rewāh.
46 A	,, ,,	••	*Vinaya-patrikā	. 1850	•••	
<b>4</b> 9 A			. Jadurāja Vilāsa	1875	1884	
7 H		••	. Rāma-swayambara		/	

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.		Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
55 C	Raidāsa		Raidāsa jī kā Sākhī	tathā	(1450)		
97 C	,,		pada. *Raidāsa jī kā pada	••	•••	1649	
160 C	Rajabajī		Grantha Sarvangī	•••		•••	
73 C	Rāja Singha	•••	Rasa pāya nātaka	•••	(1730)		
74 C	,, ,,		Bāhu Vilāsa	,.	,,	1735	
76 A	Rāmānanda		Rāma-rakṣā	•••			Not the famous reformer.
92 B	Rāmachandra		Rāma-vinoda	••	1663		
8 B	Rāma Nātha		Rāma-hori-rahasa	••	1855	1889	
9 B	,, ,.		Pradhāna-nīta	•••			
93 B	Rāma Nārāyaṇa		Kabitta-ratna-mālik	ā	1730		
81 C	Rasapunja		Kabitta Srī mātā j	ŗā	(1730)		
98 C	Rasika Dāsa		Kunja kautuka				,
99 C	,, ,,		Pūjā vibhāsa	••	,,		
38 A	Rasika Prîtama		Nitya lîlā	••	(1738)		
38 C	Rasikarāya		Bhavara gītā				
94 E	Rasajānī Dāsa	•	Bhāg†ata		1750		
101 (	Ratana Singha		Nața nāgara vinoda	٠	. (1843)		
193 (	Rijhawāra		*Kavita Sri Hajūra	гā.	(1810)		
194 (	,	••	* Kavita Srī Nātha	ı jī rā	,,		
221 (	,	••	*Nātha charitr	a r	0,,		
34 ]	Sadala Miśra		hakīkata nāmā. Nāsiketa-upākhyān	a	1803	1803	
266	Sadela vachchha	••	Sadevachha sāval	gyā k	ā 1640		
81	B Sāgaradāna	••	duhā. Guņa-vilāsa		(1810	1810	
<b>1</b> 29 .	A Sahajo Bāī	••	Sahaja-prakāśa bah	u-ang	a   1743		Disciple of the famou
130	A ,, ,,	••	Solaya tithya-nirṇa	ıya .			Charana Dāsa.
131	A , "	••	Sabda				
42	A Samana Singha		Pingala-kāvya-vibl	pušaži	1822	1832	
36	C Sambhu Nātha	••	. Rājakumāra prabo	dha .	(1810	) 1819	

No. of Notice.		Name of Author.			Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.	
211 C	,	Samirala or Rasarāja			* Mānḍa aura ṭ	appe	•••	•••		
51 A		Santa Kavirāja		•••	Lakşmiśwara ch	andrīkā	ā	1885	1886	
177 (		Santośi Rā	ma		Jalandhara Nāth	ajī ro	rú-	(1810)		
2 (		Sardāra Si	ngha		paka. Sura taranga	•••		1748		
82 A		Sasınātha	Miśra	•••	Sujāna vilāsa	•••	•••	1750	1816	
112 (		Sekha nab	ī		Gyāna dīpa	•••	••	1619	1875	
19 (		Sera Singl	1a	•••	Ramakrişņa jas	3.	•••	1789	1793	
106 H	3	Siva Nāth:	a	•••	Bansāvalī	•••	•••	1825	•••	Genealogical account of the Rewah family.
294 (		Siva Rāma			Takhata vilāsa	•••		1840		
36 A	7	Sri Bhatta		•••	Jugala sata	•••	•••	(1544)	1882	
81 <i>A</i>	7	Sūdana K	avī		Sujāna-charitra	•••	•••	(1750)	1822	
107 C	(	Sūbanśa	•••		Pheki	•••	••		1889	
109 A	7	Sundara	•••		Sundara-sringā	a.	.•	1631	1719	Attended the Court of Shahjahan.
27	A	Sundara D	āsa		Haribola-chintā	maņi	•••	(1600)		
3 (		"	,•	•••	Sundara Sringā	ra	•••	1631	1778	2 MSS. (1734).
25 (		99	,,	••.	Savaiyā	•••	٠.	(1650)	•••	
165 (		,,	"	•••	*Gyāna Samud	ra	••	1653	1773	
290 (	اد	,,	"	•••	Sundara Dāsa jī	kā Sav	aiya	1620	1773	
125 A	A	Sundara I	āla	•••	Sundara-chandr	ikā rasi	ika.	1852	1853	
128	A	,,	,,	••	Priyā-bhakti-ra rādhā-mangal		inī	-	1855	
95	В	Sundari E	Kunwari	•	Prema-sampuţa	•••		1788		She was the daughter of Mahārāja Rāja Singha
96	В	,,	,,	•••	Ranga-jhara	•••	••	1788		of Rupanagar.
97	В	,,	"	•••	Neha-nidhi	•••	••	. 1760		
98	В	,,	53	•••	Rāma-rahasya	•••	••	. 1796		
99	В	,,	"		Sanketā-sugala	•••	••	. 1773		
<b>1</b> 00	В	,,	,,	•••	Gopī-mahātmy	a	• (	. 1789		
101	В	,,	,,	**	Rasa-punja	•••	•	1777		

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.	Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
102 B	Sundari Kunwari .	. Sāra-Sangraha	•••	1788		
103 B	,, ,, .	, , ,	āt-	1766		
<b>104</b> B	,, ,,	mya. Bhāvanā-prakāśa	•••	1792		
86 B	Súrati Miśra	. Rasa-ratana	•••	1711	1830	
96 C	,, ,,	,,	•••	1731	1812	
23 B	Sūra Dāsa	Sūra-Sāgara	•••	(1580)	1809	
292 C	,, ,,	Sura Dāsa jī kā pada	•••	(1550)	•••	
178 C	Swarūpa Māna	Jalandhra chandroday	a	(1810)?	•••	
80 C	Syāma Rāma	Brahmānda varņana	•••	1718	1730 ?	
12 B	Tānasena	Sangīta-sāra	٠.	(1560)	1831	
41 C	,, ***	Rāga mālā	•••	,,		
228 C	Tārāchanda Vyāsa	Nāthānanda prakāśikā	i	1832	1832	
134 A	Todara Malla	Âtmānuśāsaua	••	1761	1768	
1 A	Tulsī Dāsa	Rāmacharita-mānasa		1574	1647	
7 A	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	* Vairāgya Sandīpinī	•••			
22 B	12 21 ***	Rāmāyaņa Bāla Kānd	a	1574	1604	Very old MS.
28 B	,, ,,	" Ajodhyā Kān	ļa .	1574		MS. in the author's own
60 B	,, ,,	. Hanumāna-bāhuka	••	1623	1802	handwriting.
68 A	. Udaya Nātha Trivedi	Jaga lîlā	••	(1720)	1847	
31 B	Umāpati	Ayodhyā-Mahātmya	• •	1867		
66 B	Uttama Chanda	Nātha-chandrıkā	•••	•••		B. 1776, D. 1807.
18 C	32 33	. Alankāra āśaya	•••	(1780)		
54 E	Vaisņava Dāsa	. Bhakta-māla-prasanga			1772	
67 A	Vallabha rasika	Mānjha	•••	(1624)		
97 A	Vidyākamala	Bhagavatī Gītā			1612	
91 <i>A</i>	Vijayadeva Súri	Sri-Sīla-rāsā	٠.	(1600)	1612	
74 E	Vinaya Samudra	Sinhāsana-battŗīsī		1554	1767	
106 C	Vișnugiri	Sugama Nidāna	••	1744	•••	

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.		Name of Book.		Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script	Remarks.
43 A	Viśwanātha Singha		Aṣṭayāma-kā-ānhnika	••	1830	•••	
44 A	13 <b>23</b>	•••	Gīta-raghunandana - pra māṇikā ṭīkā-sahitā.	a -	1844	•••	
47 A	- ,, ,,		Dhanura-vidyā	•••	•••	1854	
48 A	59 99		Paramatatwa-prakrāṣa	•••	••	•••	
6 B	",	•••	$*\overline{f A}$ nanda-rāmāyaņa	•••	•••	1823- 43	
16 B	,, ,,		Parama-dharma-nir na y Pt. I.		•••	1848	
17 B	,, ,,	•••	, Pt. II		•••	1848	
18 B	97 99		,, Pt. I	v.			
20 B	,, ,,		Dhanuşa-Vidyā	••			
121 A	Vrinda Kavī		Vrinda-satsai	•••	1704	1837	
9 C	,, ,,	••.	yy yy •••		<b>1</b> 704		
42 C	,, ,, ,,	••	Sringāra sikhyā		1691	•••	
117 A	Vrīndābana	•••	Jaīna-chhandāwalī	•••	1834	•••	
	Unknown Aut	hors.					
<b>7</b> 0 A			Prahlādopākhyāna —	•••	•••	•••	
73 A			Chida vilāsa			1715	
86 A			Baitāla pachīsī	•••	<b></b> .	•••	
95 A			Prithvīchandra guṇa	sā-	. <u>.</u> .		
			gara gīta. Sālihotra	•••		1612	
99 A			Bhuvana dīpaka	••		1614	
100 A	•••••		Karma battīsī	•••		1738	
107 A	*****		Bhaktāmara bhāṣā				
108 A			Puşpānjalī pūjā japan	าลิไร			
113 A						1738	
114 A			Aditya kathā badī	+0	}		
119 A			Sudrașta (Sudișța)	ta		1019	
33 B	•••		Upanişada bhāṣā	••	. 1719	1912	
36 B	*****		Kānyakubja vanśāvalī			1837	
51 B			Yantra rāja vivaraņa	••	(1830)	•	

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No. of Notice.	Name of Author.	Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
76 B	*****	Hitopadeśa bhāṣā ṭīkā		1768	
91 B	*****	Bhagvatgītā bhāṣā	•••	1741	
4 C	******	Duhā Sāra	1663	1714	
10 C		Puṣṭi driḍhā bhāṣā		1776	
12 C	*****	* Khata praśanī			
37 C	na	Mainā Sata		•••	
66 C	•••••	*Anekārtha-nāmāwalī	(1810)		
69 C	•••••	Kriṣṇa jī kī līlā	(1760)	1740	
70 C	*****	Viraha manjarī			
75 C	*** **	Siddha Siddhāntapad- dhatī.	(1810)		
93 C	*****	Sudāmā charitra	. <u>.</u> .	1649	
110 C	*****	Bhaktā saktā kā jhagaḍā	1646		
116 C	*****	Achala dāsa khīchī kī		1786	
117 C	u*****	bāta. Āchārya jī ke utsava ke			
119 C	*****	pada. Asamedha-jagya bhāṣā		1786	
120 C		Asankha juga kī ghaṭathā-			
122 C		panā. * Bārtā rā misalā			
124 C		Bhagwāna stotram			
125 C		* Bhajana		<b></b>	
126 C	•••••	Bhajana		1649	
132 C	•••••	Bharathari ko pada		1649	
133 C	100.187	Bhogala Purāṇa	•••	•••	
134 C		* Chāṇakya bhāṣā ṭīkā		•••	
136 C	•••••	sahita. Chaubīsī ekādaśi mahā-		1794	
138 C		tama bhāsā. Chhanda sangraha		• • • •	
139 C	*****	Chha rāga chhatīsa rāganī kī hakīkata.	,	•••	
144 C	•••••	* Dhanuşa yagya			

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.	Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
145 C	*****	* Dhrū charitra		•••	
148 C	****	Giḍolī rī bāta	•••	1780	
149 C	*****	Gīta Mahārāja Srī Abbaya Singha jī ke.	(1760)	•••	
150 C	•••••	* Gīta Mahārāja 'Srī Jas- wanta Singha jī rā.	(1680)	•••	
152 C	*****	*Gīta Rāva ji Srī Jodhā (	(1810)?		
161 C	*****	Gulābān bhavar kī bāta	•••	•••	
162 C	•••••	Gunaganja Nāmo		1649	
169 C	*****	* Hafta gulaśana nāmā ( tavārīkha kī sankṣepa	(1700)	1819	
170 C	•••••	bhāṣā. * Harichanda purāṇa	•••	1723	
172 C	••••	Hari jasa	•••	•••	
174 C	*****	* Iqyār sān rī kathā	•••	<b></b>	
175 O	***	Jaimanī aśwamedha bhāṣā.	***	•••	
176 C	*****	* Jalandhara Nātha jī rā gīta.	(1,810)	•••	
180 C	•••••	Jūnīkhyāta	•••	•••	
182 C	•••••	Kātī Mahātama bhāṣā	•••	1787	
189 C	•••••	Kavita Jalandhara Nātha jī rā.	(1810)		
190 C	•••••	Kayita Mahārāja Māna Singha 1ā.	(1810)		
191 C	*****	* Kavita Sangraha	•••		
192 C	•••••	* Kavita Şaţa ritu	. •••	•••	
196 C	•••••	* Khyāta Mahārājādhirāja Srī 108 Takhata Singha		•••	
197 C		jī Sāhaba rī. Kīrtana Rāmkrisņa cha- ritra kā.	•••		
198 C	******	Kirtana Sangraha	•••	•••	
202 C	** ***	Kundaliyā Sinha Singhana ke.	***	•••	
203 C	*****	Lailī Majanū rī bāta	•••	•••	
204 C	*****	Māgha mahātāma bhāṣā	•••	1786	
205 C		Mahārāja Ajīta Singha rā gīta.	1	ł	
208 C		Mahārāja Srī Ajīta kī Kavitā	(1690)		

No. of Notice,	Name of Author.	Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
210 C	••••	Manchhā vāchā rī bārtā	•••		
212 C	,,	Migasara Mahātmya	•••	1785	
213 C	•••••	Mochhandra nātha jī kā	•••	1688	
216 C	•••••	pada. Nāga jī rī bāta		1797	
220 C	*****	Nāsaketa bhāṣā		1759	
222 C	*****	* Nāth Dharma			
231 C	*****	* Navodhā varņana			
232 C	*****	Padama Purāna māhilo		1785	
233 C	*****	vaisāsa mahātama. * Pada Sangraha	•••		
234 C	•••••	Pancha daśi bhāṣā ṭīkā	•••	1649	
235 C	•••••	Sahita. * Panchākhyāna pancha tantra.		•••	
237 C	*****	Phuṭakara Duhā			
238 C	•••••	Phuṭakara Gīta			
239 C	*****	Phuṭakara Kavita Dūhā.			
240 C	*****	Phuṭakara pada Gāvān kā		1819	
242 C	*** ***	Pratibodha Gyāna tīk	·		
243 C	*****	joga. Prema Pratraka	1731	1735	
245 C	*****	Rādhikā Rūsaņen		1763	
246 C	****	* Rāga			
247 C	******	* Rāga Malāra			
248 C	*****	* Rāga Sangraha		** *	
250 C	•••••	Rāja Jodhpur ki bansā	(1752)	?	From Sıyā jī to Vijaya
251 C	*****	walī. Rājā Risālū rī bāta		1759	Singha.
25 <b>3</b> C	•••••	* Rāmacharitra bhāṣā		1790	
254 C	•••••	Rāma Dāsa bairāvata r ākhaḍiyāna.	ī	•••	•
255 C	•••••	Rāma nomī rī kathā			
257 C		Rānjhā Hīrā rī bāta			

No. of Notice.	Name of Author.	Name of Book.	Date of Compo- sition.	Date of Manu- script.	Remarks.
259 C	•••••	* Rasika Priyā saṭīka	•••	1737	
260 C	*****	Rasika Priyā Saṭīka	•••	•••	
261 C	*****	Rāthorāna ri paranālī	(1810)	•••	
263 C	•••••	Rūpaka vārata Tiloka rā kahyā.	•••	•••	
270 C	*****	* Sakuna Vichāra	•••		
272 C	/*****	Sāmudrika bhāṣā ṭīkā Sahita.	•••	1789	
273 C		* Sangraha Grantha	•••	•••	
274 C	•••••	* ,, ,,	•••	•••	
278 C	*****	Şodaşa bhakti bhāva	•••		
279 C	199111	* Siddhānta charitra mahā megha mālā.	(1810)?	141	
282 C	*****	* Siva Gītā			
283 C	*****	Siva rātrī rī kathā		1745	
285 C	*****	Srī Krisna jī kī vraja vihāra līlā.		1800	
286 C	•••••	*Srī Nātha jī ke mata ke grantha.			
287 C	******	Sri Thākura jī rī lîlā bhāva rā kavitta.	ā		
288 C	•••••	* Sūboņ ki hakīkata	. (1730)		
289 C	*****	*Suka bahotarī		1790	
291 C	• • • • •	Supana Vichāra		•••	
295 C	••••	* Utpatti Prakarņa			
296 C	,	Utsava Mālıkā		1778	
298 C	*** ***	* Varņāśrama Dharma			
300 C	••••	Viṣṇu Pada			

# GLIMPSES OF SINGHALESE SOCIAL LIFE.

# BY ARTHUR A. PERERA.

(Continued from Vol. XXXII. p. 437.)

# (6) Black and White Magic.17

The occult practices in the Island can be classified under four heads: (1) minor charms and leechcraft; (2) the invocation and exorcism of demons; (3) the worship of demi-gods, tutelary spirits, and local deities; and (4) the adoration of planets. The influence of Buddhism led to the division of spirits into devils and demi-gods according to their more or less humane qualities, and to the latter were subsequently added the Hindu divinities modified in character.

# 1. - Minor Magical Practices.

Charms are used for several trifling purposes, and any one who has the patience to learn them by heart dabbles in them. To find out a theft a cocoanut is charmed (pol-pékaranavá) and placed where a thief has made his escape; while the operator holds it with a stick attached to its end he is led along the track to where the thief is; or the persons suspected of it are made to stand with bared backs round an ash-plantain tree, and as it is struck with a charmed creeper the culprit gets an ashy streak on his back.

Love-philtres consist of rubbing a medicine on one's face and showing himself to a girl; mixing a herbal preparation with her food; causing a betel to be chewed; sprinkling oil on her or wearing a thread from her garment.

Some pretend to read the present, past and future by a betel smeared with a vegetable paste (anjanan eliya); a female elf (anjanan dévi) appears on the leaf and shows what is wanted.

A juggler draws a magic veil over the eyes of his spectators (esbenduma) to avoid detection.

Charmed ashes and sand are thrown to kill worms and other insects that destroy crops; and magical formulæ are used to guard against elephants, crocodiles, dogs, leopards, bears, buffaloes, wild cattle, &c.

This incantation makes a dog take to its heels, if muttered thrice on to the hand and stretched towards it, "On name budunge påvåde batkåpu ballå jhik. On srin pase budunne påvåde bat kåpu ballå kikki kukkå nam to situ. On Buddha namas sake situ."

Elephants are kept away by "On sri játá hárê bhávátu arahan situ."

As a preventive against possession a thread spun by a virgin  $(kanyd n \hat{u} l a)$  is charmed over live-coal with resin and turmeric and tied round one's arm, waist or neck; it has as many knots as the number of times the charm is repeated. Amulets (yantra), too, made of five kinds of metal.

<sup>17</sup> Principal works consulted:-

<sup>(1)</sup> Calloway's Yakkun Nattanava (1829)...

<sup>(2)</sup> Upham's History and Doctrine of Buddhism (1829), p. 130.

<sup>(3)</sup> Ceylon Magazine (1841), Vol. I. p. 256.

<sup>(4)</sup> Selkirk's Recollections of Ceylon (1844), p. 482.

<sup>(5)</sup> Tennant's Christianity in Ceylon (1850), p. 230.

<sup>(6)</sup> Young Ceylon (1850), Vol. I. pp. 82 and 109.

<sup>(7)</sup> The Ceylon Friend (1870), Vol. I. p. 41.

<sup>(8)</sup> J. R. A. S. (Ceylon) (1865-1836), Vol. IV. No. 13, p. 1.

<sup>(9) &</sup>quot; (1873), Vol. V. No. 18, p. 24.

<sup>(10) &</sup>quot; (1884), Vol. VIII. No. 29, p. 432.

viz., gold, silver, copper, brass and iron (paslô), and enclosing a mystic piece of ola, are used for the same purpose.

The usual remedy for minor complaints is to cut a lime or two with an areca-cutter after an incantation or to mutter it over some water procured from a smithy in which iron has been cooled, or over a little oil, a betel-leaf or chunam and apply it to the affected part.

To cure a sprain, a mother who has had twins is made to secretly trample it every evening for a couple of days; and for whooping cough is given gruel made of seven grains of rice silently collected in a chunam receptacle (killôte) from seven houses on a Sunday morning. A touch with a cat's tail removes a sty; and a toothache is cured by biting a balsam plant (kûdalu) uprooted with the right hand, the face averted.

# 2. - Invocation of Demons.

Divers diseases or death is inflicted by the Pilli, Angam and Huniam invocations, and to perform the ceremonial there is a special class of professional magicians (kattadi) who bind to themselves by the jivama rite the demon who is to do their bidding (yaksabandanaya).

At dawn, noon or midnight he goes to a lonely spot where three roads meet or to a grave-yard, and, lying on his back, calls on the devil who is to aid him. Near him are (1) a platform made of gurulla sticks (Leea sambucina) and of the inner bark of the beli patta shrub (hibiscus hiliacus) with nine kinds of flowers, powdered rosin, betel, a kanya nûl coloured with turmeric and a copper coin — all on a plantain-leaf (mal-bulat tattuva); (2) another with five kinds of roasted seed, seven kinds of curries, boiled rice, fried grain, a roasted egg and a cock (pideni tattuva); (3) an earthen incense-pan with live-coals, and a fire made of the wood of five kinds of lemon (pas-pengiri). The demon invoked tries at first to frighten the kattadiya, and if he succeeds, takes away the other's hife as a forteit.

A Pilli causes immediate death and is rarely practised. The kattadiyá procures a whole corpse or only the skull, teeth, bones, nails, or hair of a man, woman, or child (a first-born is preferred) and takes it to the jivama ceremony. In the course of it the demon assumes the form of a boy, girl, animal, bird, reptile or insect, is given the name of the intended victim and ordered by the magician to inflict the fatal wound: to stab, strangle, bite or sting him.

On the devil's return the magician lays him by sprinkling some water; only if the victim be himself a sorcerer can he ward off a Pilli; for by a counter-charm he can direct the operator to be killed instead.

An Angama affects within seven hours and causes throwing up of blood through the nose and mouth. The *kattadiyâ* takes some article that the victim had possessed or touched—a flower, a cocoanut-leaflet, a betel, a stick, &c.; performs the *jîvama* and touches him with it or fans him, or stretches it towards him or keeps it in the hand and looks at his face or blows so that the breath may fall on him or leaves it in some place that it may be picked up by him.

A Huniama takes effect within intervals varying from a day to several years. The kattadiya procures a lock of hair, a nail-paring, or a thread of the garment of the person to be injured. An image is next made to represent him, nails made of five metals are thrust at each joint and his name written on a leaf and inserted in its body. All these are buried after the jivama, where the victim has generally to pass; and when he does so, he falls ill with swelling, or stiffness of joints, or burning sensation in the body or disfigurement of the mouth, legs, and arms.

# 3. - Exorcism of Demons.

Spirits who, of their own accord or with leave of superior spirits like their king Wesamunu Rajâ or by the aid of Huniam and Angam charms, have afflicted human beings are exorcised by

a devil-dance, which is almost the same in every case, but the charms, the masks, and the images used depend on the afflicting devil, and the elaborateness of the ceremony on the means of the patient and the gravity of the disease. The first duty of the kattadiya is to find out which particular devil has caused the illness, and Knox gives a quaint account of how this is done (page 76): "With any little stick they make a bow, and on the string thereof they hang a thing they have to cut betel-nuts, somewhat like a pair of scissors; then holding the stick or bow by both ends they repeat the names of all, both gods and devils; and when they come to him who hath afflicted them, the iron on the bow-string will swing." A clay image of this demon is next made, and in the compound near the patient's house an octagonal figure (atamagala) of 20 or 30 sq. ft. is marked with ashes, and bounded with sticks of five different kinds of lemon or the stems of plantain-trees, which are connected with a thread, spanned with areca arches, decorated with palm-leaflets and cocoanut-shells containing oil and lighted wicks. At the corners of the enclosure are drawn figures of the trisula; on one side are erected mal bulat and pideni sheds and, between them, a platform about 4 ft. high on which is placed the figure of the afflicting devil, or, in cases of special female diseases, a new earthen pot with an areca or cocoanut blossom. Split reeds are arranged at the centre of the mystic circle in different diagrams on which the kattadiya, with his attendants dressed in red and white jackets, masked and with qurulla leaves round the waist and head, go through a series of dances, drawling out a mournful chant and keeping time with their hands and bell-attached feet to the music of the tom-tom beaters.

The dance commences a little before midnight, and as it goes on, the magician raises the torch, which he carries in his right hand, to a flame by throwing in powdered rosin, or approaches the patient seated about 7 or 8 ft. from the circle, facing the clay image, with a white cloth covering from head to foot, rubs turmeric, water and oil on his head, makes some mesmeric passes, and all but suffocates him with the smoke of a potful of narcotics. A couple of hours after, the kattadiya retires to an ante-shed, sometimes carrying the patient with him; a short interval and he returns after a bath and a change of costume, but still masked. Dancing and music recommence, and towards dawn seven limes are placed between the patient's feet and the circle and cut one by one and thrown into a chatty full of water; as the magician cuts each lime he repeats a charm and the patient places his foot near the other. When this is over, the sick man is carried within the circle and seated facing the north with a rice-pounder, paddy, and a cocoanut by him. A coil of creepers is next put round his neck, shoulders and ankles and slit with an areca-cutter. The sacrifices (dola) due to the exorcised devil follow, and a pumpkin gourd (puhul or labu gediya) is kept on the breast of the kattadiya lying on his back and cut in two with a knife by the patient; the parts are thrown into the sea or a piece of water. Lastly, the earthen pot is broken or the clay figure carried with loud shouts to the haunt of the devil and left there with offerings.

Maha Sohona transforms himself into Lê Sohona and Amu Sohona and afflicts with cholera and dysentery; is 122 feet tall, has the head of a bear, with a pike in his left hand, and in his right an elephant whose blood he squeezes out to drink; presides over graveyards and where three roads meet. Riri Yaksaya causes a flux of blood, and is present at the death-bed; has a monkey-face, carries in one hand a cock and a club in the other, with a corpse in the mouth; and generally haunts fields. Kalu Kumara Dêvatawa or Kalu Yaksaya destroys conception, delays childbirth and causes puerperal madness; is a young man of a dark colour, and is always exorcised by breaking a new earthen pitcher. Sanni Yaka transforms himself into Oddi Taka and Huniam Taka; causes different forms of coma; has cobras twisting round his body with a pot of fire about him; holds a rosary (lakveliya) in his hand, rides on a horse, and is exorcised with the most elaborate of devil dances. Mandana Yaksanī is a she-demon, causes sensuality and resides near rivers and waterfalls. Balakiri Yaksaniyo are the she-demons who afflict children.

Ayimaha Yaksayâ or Môlan Garavvâ, Dala Râkshayâ, Yama Râkshayâ, Pûrnikâ, Ratna Kûtayâ, Nîla Giri, Nanda Giri, Chandra Kâwâ, Mârakâ, Asurayâ, Nâta Giri and Pel Madulla are the twelve Gara Yakku who haunt every nook and corner and destroy crops, make trees barren, new houses inauspicious, send pests of flies and insects, and reduce families to abject poverty. They are propitiated by a special dance called Garâ Yakuma described above (ante, Vol. XXXII. p. 434).

Disembodied spirits who love the things they have left behind hover on earth and make their presence known by emitting different smells or by contaminating food ( $per\acute{e}tay\^a$ ), by destroying the plates and furniture of a house ( $gevalay\^a$ ), by apparitions ( $avat\^ara$ ), or by pelting stones and creating other strange sounds (holman); they are afraid of iron and lime, and when over-boisterous a  $kattadiy\^a$  rids them from a house by nailing them to a tree or enclosing them in a small receptacle and throwing it into the sea; they are imprisoned till some one unwittingly sets them free, when they again commence their tricks with double force.

A woman who dies in parturition and is buried without removing the child becomes a **Bôdirimar**; she is short and fat and rolls like a cask and kills men whenever she can; the females chase her away with threats of beating her with an *ikle*-broom.

Nurses hush children by calling on the kidnapping goblin, indiscriminately named Billa, Gonibilla, Gurubaliya, and Guruhami.

# 4. - Worship of local deities.

The chief local deities are worshipped at their respective déwâlas, where the incumbent (kapurâla), after his morning ablutions, attends to the wants of the god: he lights a taper three times a day on the altar of the sanctuary, offers him food, performs some mystic rites, rings a bell and sprinkles water on the sacred vessels; the aid and protection of the tutelary spirits of the field, hill, wood, cave, tree or river are implored at their special haunts by lighting tapers, burning incense and offering flowers on temporary platforms or on raised granite slabs of rock. Annual festivals are held in the honour of the former, at all the déwâlas, between July and August; those at Kandy, Dondra and Kateragama are the most known.

Vishnu, a candidate for Buddhahood, is identified with the third of the Hindu Trimurti, and is the guardian angel of the island. Vows made to him at some anxious moment are always fulfilled by offering presents at his shrine.

Kateragama deviyo is the son of the god of war who assisted Rama in his great war with Ravana. It is not uncommon to find an accused person or a chaste wife swear to his innocence or her fidelity before his image; they stand on the steps of the déwdla, take the usual oath, cry out deyyô sdkki" (god be witness) a dozen times, retire to a lonely hut by a river and remain there three days awaiting the consequences. He is also implored by husbands to cure their wives of sterility; they roll on the dust along the road, their feet tied and carrying a cocoanut in their hands clasped above the head, and as they reach the entrance of the déwdla, dash the cocoanut to pieces. The owner of a garden sometimes dedicates his trees to this god by tying cocoanut leaflets round them and promises to offer him a share of the nuts; no one steals them fearing the avenging displeasure of the deity.

Before one starts on a journey he entrusts himself to the guardian deities of the four quarters (hatara varan deviyô).

Natha is to be the future Maitri Buddha and is now biding his time in the *tusita* heaven; Saman or Lakshman is the half-brother of Râma and the guardian angel of Adam's Peak, and Alut Yakinni has attributes similar to Pârvati.

Pattini is the goddess of chastity, and when incensed inflicts small-pox and other epidemics; to avert her displeasure and ensure protection to the inhabitants, a kapurala or her special priest

(pattinihdmi) either travels, accompanied by a couple of musicians, from village to village, with a pot containing margosa oil and a cocoanut flower on his head, or presides over the ceremonies known as Porapolgahanava, An Edima and Ganmaduva.

In the first the villagers divide themselves into their hereditary factions: Yatipila (lower party) favoured by Pattini and Udupila (upper party) by her husband. The two leaders place themselves at a distance of 30 feet, and after a preliminary invocation by the officiating priest, the upper one bowls a ripe husked cocoanut (pol) at his adversary who meets it with another in his hand. This goes on till the receiver's nut is broken, when he begins to bowl. One side is declared winner when the stock of nuts of the other party is exhausted.

For the next religious game an open space of ground is selected and the trunk of a tree is buried at the centre of it. At the distance of a few yards is placed the log of a cocoanut tree, about 20 feet high, in a deep hole large enough for it to move backwards and forwards; and to the top of it thick ropes are fastened. The opposing parties bind two horns (an) together artfully, and, tying one to the base of the trunk and the other to that of the log, pull away at the ropes with all their might till one of them breaks. During the game the priest chants sacred hymns and burns incense in a shed close by.

At the end of both these ceremonies the conquering party goes in procession round the village, and the defeated side has to undergo a lot of abuse and insult which are said to remove the bad effects of their defeat.

The Gan-Maduva generally follows either of the above and lasts for a period of seven days. A temporary building, nicely decorated with flowers and fruits, is erected, in which an altar is placed containing the armlets (halamba) of the goddess. A branch of the jack-tree is cut with great ceremony by the incumbent and is carried into it by his assistants (eduro) and kept on the east side with a little boiled rice, a cocoanut flower, two cocoanuts and a lamp. A pandal is next erected in front decorated with leaves and flags; and at the appointed hour the officiating priest carries to it the sacred insignia with music, and as he lays them there all present make obeisance. Water mixed with turmeric is sprinkled on the floor, resin is burnt and a series of dances mimicking village social life continues the whole night, varied by the priest walking on heaps of live-coals. The rites terminate with the ceremony of boiling milk, followed by a miniature representation of horn-pulling and sometimes by breaking the sacred earthen vessel at the nearest stream.

Pattini participates in the sacrifices made to her with Devol Yakka and Mangara Deviyo. The last-named is the twin-brother of Gopalu Yaksaya, who torments cattle at night and inflicts them with murrain.

Wesamunu Rajā is the devil-ruling god. Mahasen is a deified king of Ceylon (B. C. 277-304) and worshipped as an incarnation of Kateragama Deviyō. Wîra Munda Deviyō has an annual sacrifice ten or fifteen days before the Singhalese New Year. Hena Kanda Bisō Bandāra was born of a wood-apple (beli) and is invoked as the incarnation of Skanda Kumāraya's queen. Wahala Bandāra Deviyō and Malwattē Bandāra are the ministers of Vishnu and implored to cure possession. Kalu Bandāra is the god of the chase propitiated by hunters when entering into a strange district. Sundara Bandāra protects them who invoke him before sleeping. Malala or Gala Bandāra haunts precipices. Bahirawa Yaksayā lives on a hill and guards the metals and gems in the earth; a girl was formerly sacrificed to him every year.

The Kohomba Yakun steal the crops of a field and are propitiated by agricultural ceremonies. The Wali Yakun are three heroes, one the offspring of Vishnu, the other sprung from a lotus, and the third from grass. Baddrakali is sought for winning law-suits and subduing rivals; and Ganêsa is invoked by children before reciting the alphabet for the first time.

## 5. - Adoration of Planets.

Sickness is not only caused by the displeasure of gods and demons but as well by the malignant influence of the stars; an astrologer for a handful of betel, bulat hurulla, and a few coins reads one's ola horoscope (handahana), and finds out which planet is the cause of the complaint. To counteract the evil, a Bali ceremony is performed or a stone sacred to the baleful planet is worn: a sapphire for Saturn, a topaz for Jupiter, a coral for Mars, a diamond for Venus, an emerald for Mercury, a moonstone for the waxing moon, a pearl for the full moon, a cat's eye for the waning moon, and a ruby for the sun.

For the Bali rite the seven planets are represented by painted clay images on a large platform of split bamboo — measuring altogether 10 or 12 square feet. The tom-tom beaters stand behind and play their drums, while in front the astrologer and his assistants — all of the Beravâyâ caste — with torches in their hands, dance and recite some propitiatory stanzas. The patient sits the whole time opposite the images, holding in his hand a lime connected by a thread with the chief idol; near him are strewed limes, flowers, betel, and dried paddy, and a stander-by throws portions of an areca-flower broken off at the end of each verse into a basin of water,

(To be continued.)

#### MISCELLANEA.

# THE NAVAGRAHA OR NINE PLANETS, AND THEIR NAMES.

The Navagraháh or "nine planets" of the Hindus are the five planets, properly so called, the sun and moon, with Råhu and Kêtu—the moon's ascending and descending nodes. The worship of these appears to have originated in judicial astrology and in the belief that the planets had a great influence over personal destinies. Hence they are divided into śubhagraháh or sad-graháh,—auspicious, and krúragraháh or pápa-graháh,—those that are inauspicious. The first includes Brihaspati, Sukra, Budha, and Sôma when in the second paksha or fortnight; the second includes Sani, Mangala, Råhu, and Kêtu.

The seven heavenly bodies are arranged, as by the Greeks, in the order — (1) Saturn, (2) Jupiter, (3) Mars, (4) the Sun, (5) Venus, (6) Mercury, and (7) the Moon. The hours of the day were dedicated to these in succession, so that the 1st, 8th, 15th and 22nd hours of each day always fell to the same planet who also presided over the whole day: 1 thus, on Saturday, Saturn presided over the whole day and over these four hours specially, Jupiter over the 23rd, and Mars over the 24th hour. Hence the 25th hour or first of

the next day has the sun — Sûrya — for its lord and so again the 49th hour gives Sôma — the moon, as president of Monday, and thus Mangala presides over Tuesday, and so on. Sunday — as with western nations — is always regarded as the first day of the week.

Associated with these planets are their presiding divinities or lords. These are represented on paintings or carvings known as Råšichakras or zodiacs, of which three examples have been published: the first in Sir Wm. Jones's paper on the Indian Zodiac (Asiat. Res. Vol. II., at p. 303); the second in Moor's Hindu Pantheon (1810), plate 88; and the third in the Transactions of the R. Asiatic Society, Vol. III.

Jones's plate has Mount Sumeru in the centre, with cities, &c., round it, and bordered by a narrow strip denoting an ocean; the upper side is marked pûrvadik, — east, the right dakshinadik, the left uttara-dik, and the lower paéchimadik. Round this, beginning from the east and going round by the north, are representations of the Navagrahak in circles, each bearing the name in Nâgarî characters:—(1) Sûryah, (2) Vrihaspatih, (3) Râhuh, (4) Budhah, (5) Chandrah, (6) Sanih, (7) Kêtuh, (8) Bhaumah, and (9) Sukrah. Surrounding the whole are the Rásis or twelve

<sup>1</sup> Ideler, Handbuch d. Math. u tech. Chronologie, Bd. I., Ss. 178 f.; cf. Ind. Ant. Vol. XIV. p. 322.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This plate has been reproduced in Brennand's Hindu Astronomy, 1893, p. 14, but without a word of explanation or comment.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In the original plate, the first aksharas in the sixth and ninth names are of unusual and inaccurate forms.

zodiacal signs, in ellipses, beginning on the left of the top with Aries (Mêsha) and going round to the left, — each labelled in Nâgarî letters.

Moor's plate, from the collection of Colonel Stuart, differs in important details. In the central circle—in a cloud of glory—is Sûrya in his car driven by Aruna with a team of nine richly caparisoned horses; they are described as green, with black manes and red legs (p. 284) Round this is the circle of the planetary deities, divided into eight segments. These are named in Persian characters, and as the zodiacal signs are represented in the reverse order of the Jones's plate, we may also reverse the order of the grahas and read from right to left by the lower side of the circle. Thus, beginning on the right side under the horizontal diameter and opposite the signs Pisces and Aries, we have in succession (1) Chandra, (2) Mangala, (3) Budha, (4) Râhu, (5) Kêtu, (6) Brihaspatı, (7) Sukra, and (8) Sani. It would thus appear that the grahas are here arranged in the order of the days of the week, but in such a position that Råhu and Kêtu fall behind the car of Sûrya.

The drawing of Moor's plate (which he supposed came from Jaypur) is more like Hindu work than Jones's, where the dress is more Moghul. The vihanas or vehicles of the divinities also differ, and will be noticed below: perhaps in the first plate the names of Budha and Sani should be transposed, for Budha is there mounted on a vulture, which is the appropriate vehicle of Sani.

The plate in the Transactions of the R. Asiatic Society, Vol III. at p. 30, represents a "Hindu Zodiac from a choultry in the Southern part of the Carnatic." This contains a central square divided into nine smaller ones containing figures of the Navagrahas, and is surrounded by a double border of compartments, — the inner of twelve squares, with figures of the Råsis or zodiacal signs, and the outer of twenty-eight squares with the Nakshatras or lunar mansions, — each represented as an animal, and beginning with Aśvinî as a horse, — Bharanî, a male elephant, — Krittikâ, a she-goat (?), — Rôhîni, a cobra, &c.

The Navagrahas, occupying the central area, are all represented in cars of the same design, each with a driver and four horses, and within outline figures of various forms. The central graha is enclosed in a circle, and only one wheel appears on the near side of the car, whilst in all

the other cases there are two: this can hardly be other than Sûrya. In the square to the right the car is in an equilateral triangle, and the figure is probably meant for Sôma; the figure to the left, or in front of Sûrya, is placed in an oblong, whilst the déva in the car has a smaller mukuta than the preceding In the upper row, the first is enclosed in a figure like a pippala leaf, the second in what would be a star of six points, were not the lower point cut away to give a base line; and the third is in an oblong, nearly square. In the lower row, the divinities in the first and third squares have boars' heads, like Varâha - possibly representing Râhu and Kêtu — and the first is enclosed in a flag of the burger shape; the second figure is placed in what seems meant for a bent bow; and the third, in a somewhat similar area. The divinities themselves are drawn on too small a scale to be separately identified.

The outer circles, in the first two plates referred to, contain representations of the twelve zodiacal signs which are clearly of western origin and possibly derived from the same sources as the figures on Jahangir's coins.

Had we more representations of these planetary figures, from different parts of India, they would be of considerable interest. Over a door in the Wilv or great well at Adâlaj in Gujarât, the nine grahas are represented, all as standing figures, except the third, where a representation of Buddha has been carved in place of Budha, but the figures are too much abraded to afford information respecting their proper adjuncts: only the seventh (Sani) has a bull couched at his foot. In the Jaina temples the Navagrahâh are usually represented by nine small figures at the base of the dsana or throne of the image.

The lords of the seven planetary bodies have numerous epithets, which in turn give a variety of names to each day of the week, and occur in inscriptions and poetical compositions. These, so far as I have been able to collect them, are given below in the order of the days of the week over which they preside.

1. The Sun, — Ravi or Sûrya, is represented, separately in temples as standing, facing the east, his head surrounded with rays, usually with two arms holding a lotus in each, or — occasionally — a lotus and chalra, and — often underneath — are the foreparts of the seven horses that draw his chariot. Sometimes the horses are four, but often one which has four or seven heads. He is also represented as seated on a padmasana or lotus-

throne, his body of a deep golden colour, and occasionally with four hands, — holding the saikha in the upper right hand, and the front or lower left lying open with the palm upward <sup>4</sup> His car is sometimes said to have only one wheel and to be drawn by a Någa: it is often represented, however, with two or four wheels.<sup>5</sup> According to the Sabdakalpadruma, Sûrya is of the Kshatriya caste and Kåśyapa gótra, belongs to the Kalinga country, and has for his váhana seven horses. Siva is the first presiding divinity, and water the second.<sup>6</sup>

His names are very numerous: Hemachandra has given seventy-two of them in his Abhidhana-Chintamani (verses 95-99); and in the Mahabharata (iii., 146-157) a hundred and eight names are enumerated. These have been supplemented from other sources, in the following list:—

Aja; Amśu, Amśudhara, Amśupati, Amśubhartri, Amśumat, Amśumâlin, Amśuvâṇa, Amśuhasta:

Abjabândhava, Abjahasta, Abjinîpati; Aruna, Arunasârathi, Arunârchis; Arka, Aryaman; Asîtakara or Asîtaruch, Asîtamarîchi; Asvattha;

Aharbandhava, Aharmani, Aharpati, Ahahpati, Ahaskara; Adıtya; Inas;

Ushnakara, Ushnagu, Ushnadidhiti, Ushnaraśmi, Ushnaruchi, Ushnamśu;

Karmasâkshin; Kapila, Kâmada, Kâlachakrâ, Kâlâdhyaksha, Kâśyapêya;

Kiraņa, Kiraņamâlin; Kritântajanaka; Krishna;

Khakhôlka, Khaga, Khachara, Khadyôta or Khadyôtana, Khamani; Kharâmśu;

Gaganadhvaja, Gaganavihârin, Gaganâdhvaga; Gabhasti, Gabhastipâṇi, Gabhastimat, Gabhastihasta; Gôpati; Grahapati or Graharâja, Grahapushpa, Grahêśa; Gharmaraśmi, Gharmâmśu;

Chakrabandhava; Chandakırana, Chandadidhiti, Chandamarichi, Chandamsu, Chandarasmi; Chitrabhanu;

Jagachchakshus, Jagatsåkshin, Jagaddîpa; Jivana, Jîviteśa; Jyôtishmat;

Tapatampati, Tapana; Tamisrahan, Tamônud or Tamônuda, Tamôpaha; Taraṇi; Tapana, Tanana:

Tigmakara, Tigmadîdhiti, Tigmarasmi, Tigmaruch, Tigmâmsu; Tımiranud, Timiraripu, Timirari;

Tėjahpuūja; Trayîtanu; Tvashtri; Tvishâmiša or Tvishâmpati;

Dinakara, Dinakartri or Dinakrıt, Dinapati, Dinapranî, Dinabandhu, Dinamani, Dinaratna, Dinâdhisa, Dinêsa or Dinêsvara; Dîptâmsu;

Divåkara, Divåpushta, Divåmani, Divasakara or Divasakrit, Divasanatha, Divasabhartri, Divasêsvara: Dehakartri:

Dyupati, Dyumani; Dvådaśâtman or Dvådaśâtmaka; Dhâtar; Dharmadhvajas; Dhvântaśâtrava, Dhvântârâti;

Nabhaśchakshus, Nabhômaņi;

Pachata, Pachêlima; Pataga or Patanga; Padmakara, Padmagarbha, Padmapâṇi, Padmabandhu, Padmalânchhana, Padmâsana, Padminîkânta, Padminîvallabha;

Papî; Pâvaka; Pıngala; Pûshan; Prajadhyaksha, Prajadvâra; Pratibhâvat; Pradyotana; Prabhâkara;

Bradhna or Vradhna; Bhaga; Bhattaraka; Bhakôśa, Bhanemi, Bhanu, Bhanukêśara, Bhanumat, Bhaskara; Bhasvat;

Manımat; Marîchimat, Marîchimâlin, Mârtanda and Mârtânda; Mitra; Mihira; Mokshadvâra, Mritanda, Mritânda;

Yamunajanaka;

Ravi;

Lalatamtapa; Lokachakshus;

Varuņa; Vikartana; Vibhâkara, Vibhâvan, Vibhâvasu; Viyanmaṇi; Virôchana; Vivasvat; Viśvakarman, Viśvachakshus, Viśvapā; Vishṇu;

Suchi; Sushna; Saptasapti or Saptāśva; Samvatsarakara; Savitar, Savitri, Sarvatômukha; Sahasrakiraṇa, Sahasramarîchi, Sahasraraśmi, Sahasrārchis, Surôttama; Sûrya; Sûra; Svargadvāra;

Hamsa, Hari, Haridaśva; and Hêli ('Ηλως).

According to the Mahâbhárata (I. 2599) his wife is Tvâstrî, and Suvarchalâ (XIII. 6751); his sister Sureņu the wife of Mârtaṇḍa; and his daughter Suprajâ.

2. The Moon, — Chandra or Sôma, is represented as white, with two arms holding a club and a lotus; but sometimes with four hands — one of the right in the attitude of blessing. He is seated in a car with three wheels, drawn by ten horses as white as jasmine — five on each side of the yoke, and a deer in his lap; but sometimes it

There is a white marble representation of Sûrya seated in his chariot, drawn by seven horses, in the Royal Museum at Berlin, brought from Bengal by the late Dr. F. Jagor.

<sup>5</sup> Cf. Archæol. Surv. W. India, Vol. IX. pp. 73, 74, 77, 106, and pll. lvi. and lxxxviii.; Wilson, Vishnu Purûna, Vol. II. pp. 27, 284-283 (Hall's ed.).

<sup>6</sup> For this and subsequent references to the Sabdakalpadruma, I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. H. Consens of the Archæological Survey, who has procured them for me.

is drawn by a spotted antelope; or he is riding one. The Sabdakalpadruma adds, — that he was born of the ocean, and is of the Vaisya caste; that his right hand is in the varadamudra, i.e., bestowing blessing, and the left holds a gadd or club; that he sits on a white lotus, and has ten white horses to his vahana; and he is clothed in white; Umâ is the first presiding divinity, and water the second. He gives name to the second day of the week — Sômavâra, Chandravâra, &c.

The names of Chandra are also numerous — many of course being synonyms:—

Atridrigja, Atrinêtraja, Atrinêtraprasûta, Atrinêtraprabhava, Atrinêtrabhû, Atrinêtrasûta; Abjas; Abdhinavanîtaka;

Amritadîdhiti, Amritadyuti, Amritasû; Indu:

Udupa, Udupati, Uduraj;

Ēņabhrit, Ēņatilaka ;

Öshadhigarbha, Öshadhinatha, Öshadhipati, Öshadhiśa;

Kalânidhi, Kalâpati, Kalâpinî, Kalâpûrna, Kalâbhrit, Kalâvat;

Kumudapati, Kumudapriya, Kumudabandhu, Kumudabandhava, Kumudasuhrid, Kumudėsa; Kumudininatha, Kumudininayaka, Kamudinipati, Kaumudipati;

Kairavin; Kshapakara, Kshapanatha;

Glau;

Chanda;

Chandra, Chandramas;

Chhâyâbhrit, Chhâyâmrigadhara, Chhâyânka; Jaivâtrika;

Tamôghna, Tamônud, Tamônuda, Tamôpaha, Tamôpara;

Târâdhipa, Târâdhipati, Târâpati, Târâpîḍa; Tithipranî;

Tuhinakirana, Tuhinagu, Tuhinadyuti, Tuhinarasmi, Tuhinamsu;

Dakshajâpati and Dâkshâyinîpati;

Daśavâjin, Dasâśva, Dasaśvêta;

Dvijapati, Dvijaraja;

Nakshatranâtha, Nakshatrapa, Nakshatrarâja, Nakshatraiśa;

Niśâkara, Niśâkêtu, Niśâdhîśa, Niśânâtha, Niśâpati, Niśâprâneśvara, Nisâmani, Niśaratna, Niśêśa, Niśîthinînâtha:

Pîyûshanidhi, Piyushamahas, Piyusharuchi ; Pûrvvadi ; Prâlêyaraśmi, Prâleyâmśu ; Bhagnātman ;

Mâsa; Mrigadhara, Mrigarâja, Mrigalâñchhana, Mrigalôchana, Mrigânka; Mrigarâja-dhârin (?), Mrigalakshman: Yâminîpati;

Rajanîkara, Rajanîcharanâtha, Rajanîpati, Rajanîramana; Râjan, Râjarâja; Râtrikara, Râtrinâtha, Râtrimani; Rôhinîkânta, Rôhinîpati, Rōhinîpriya, Rôhinîramana, Rôhinîvallabha, Rôhinisa:

Lakshmisahaja;

Vidhu:

Sasadhara, Sasabhrit, Sasalakshmana, Sasalânchhana, Sasavindu, Sasanka; Sasin;

Sîtagu, Sîtadîdhiti, Sîtabhânu, Sîtamayûkha, Sîtamarîchi, Sîtarasmi, Sîtaruchi, Sîtamsu;

Sivaśêkhara :

Suchi, Suchirôchis; Subraraśmi, Subramśu;

Svêtadâman, Svetadyuti, Svetarôchis, Svetavâjin, Svetavâhana;

Sitakara; Sudhâmśu, Sudhâkara, Suddhânga, Sudhâdhâra, Sudhânidhi, Sudhâbhrit, Sudhâvâsa, Sudhâsûti; Sôma;

Śrîsahôdara ;

Hari; Harinakalanka, Harinadhâman, Harinânka;

Hima, Himakara, Himagu, Himadîdhiti, Himadyuti, Himabhâs, Himarasmi, Himâmsu.

3. Mars, - the Hindu Mangala or Bhauma, is the celestial war-god; that he is to be identified with Kârttikêya is an assumption that might not be found strictly accurate. He is said to be of red or flame colour, seated on a ram, or in a car drawn by a red ram, and with four arms holding spear, lotus, trisula and club. The Sabdakalpadruma says he holds in the upper right hand a śakti or spear, the lower being in the varadamudrâ, the upper left is in the abhayamudra (offering protection), and in the lower left he has a gadd or mace; adding that he is of the Kshatriya caste and Bharadvaja gotra, and that Skanda is the first presiding divinity, and the earth the second. Moor's plate gives him only two arms with lotus-bud and rod or club; Jones's mounts him on a horse with a sword in his right hand; and Ward says he holds in one hand a śakti (spear or pike), with another he is giving a blessing, with a third forbidding fear, and in the fourth a club. His names are -

Angâra, Angâraka;

Åra (Gr. 'Αρης); Åvanêya; Åshâdhabhava, Åshâdhabhû;

Rinantaka;

Kuja; Kshitisuta;

Khôlmuka; Gaganôlmuka; Chandéśvara; Chara;

Jña;

Dharâtmaja, Dhâraputra, Dhârasûnu; Navadîdhiti, Navârchis; Bhûusta; Bhûmija, Bhûmiputra; Bhauma; Mangala; Mahîsuta; Raktânga; Rudhira; Lôhita, Lôhitaka, Lôhitanga; Sivagharmaja.

4. Mercury, — Budha, is of a greenish-yellow colour, holding a club or sceptre and a lotus; or with four hands, having in the upper left hand a shield, in the lower a club, and in the lower right hand a sword, with the fourth — in the varadamudrā — he is bestowing blessing. The Sabdakalpadruma adds that he is of the Vaisya caste and Atrigotra, and of the Magadha country; he faces the sun, sits on a lion, and has a yellow garment; Nārāyaṇa is the first presiding divinity, and Vishṇu is the second. Sometimes he is represented riding on a winged lion, at others seated on a carpet or gaddi, or in a car drawn by four lions, with sword, shield, club and bow.

His names are —
Ékadêha, Ekânga;
Jũa;
Tunga;
Pañchârchis; Praharsha, Praharshula;
Budha; Bôdhana;
Råjaputra; Rôdhana; Rôhinîbhava, Rôhinîsuta;
Rauhinêya;
Śravishṭhâja, Śravishṭhâbhû; Śyâmâṅga;
Sômaja, Somabhû; Saumya;

Himna, Hêmnâ ('Ερμη̂s).

5. Jupiter, - Brihaspati, the preceptor or Guru of the gods, sits in a car called Nitighôsha, drawn by eight pale horses. He is of a yellow or golden colour, dressed in white, with four arms, - in his upper right hand he holds a rudrdksha-mdlå or rosary, in the upper left a waterpot (karaka), in the lower left hand is a rod (danda), and, with the fourth in the varadamudra, he is giving a blessing; other accounts give the rosary, a lotus, and a sceptre. Sometimes, also, he is represented as seated on a gaddi (as in Moor's plate), on a lotus, or on a horse.9 The Sabdakalpadruma adds that he is a Brâhman by caste, of the Angirasa gôtra, belongs to the Sindhu country, wears a yellow robe, and sits on a lotus in a chariot drawn by a yellow horse (or horses); Brahma is the first presiding deity, and Indra is the second.

His names are as follows: -

Animishâchârya; Ângirasa;

Ijya; Indrêjya.

Girîsa; Gîrpati or Gîshpati; Guru; Graharâja;

Chakshus : Chitrasikhandija :

Jîva:

Dîdıvi; Dvâdaśa-kara, Dvâdaśâmśu, Dvâdhaśârchis; Dhishana;

Phâlgunîbhava:

Brihatkîrtti, Brihaspati ; Brahmanaspati ;

Vâkpati, Vachasâmpati, Vâchasâmpati, Vâchaspati;

Suraguru, Surapriya, Surâchârya, Surêjya.

6. Venus, - or Sukra, the son of Bhrigu and priest of the Daityas, is represented as of a white or bright appearance, blind of an eve, seated on a lotus, in a car drawn by a white horse (or horses), with four hands, and with the same symbols as Brihaspati; but Col. Delamaine ascribes to him a horse as vahana, and holding a rod. rosary, lotus, and bow and arrows. On Moor's plate he rides an animal somewhat like a lynx, with rod and lotus-bud in his hands; on Jones's he is on a camel, and holds a large ring or hoop. The Sabdakalpadruma states that he is a Brâhman by caste, of the Bhargava gotra, of the town of Bhôjakata; sits on a lotus; faces the sun; has four hands with the same symbols as Brihaspati. Sakra or Indra is the first presiding divinity, and Sachî, Indra's wife, is the second divinity.

The names of Sukra or Usanas are as follows: —

Asurâchârya; Âsphujit (Gr. 'Αφροδίτη); Uśanas; Kavi: Kâvva:

Daitya-guru, Daityapurôdhas, Daityapurôhita, Daityapûjya, Daityâchârya, Daityêjya, Daityêndrapûjya; Dhishnya;

Bhârgava, Bhṛiguja, Bhṛigutanaya, Bhṛigunandana, Bṛihguputra, Bhṛigusuta, Bhṛigusunu;

Maghâbhava or Maghâbhû;

Sukra, Sukrâchârya; Svêta, Svêtaratha; Shôdaśâmśu, Shôdaśârchis.

7. Saturn, — Sani, Koņa or Kroda (Greek Κρόνος), as a divinity, is represented as black and in black clothing, old and ugly, with long hair and nails, four-armed—carrying a sword, two daggers, and an arrow, with a blue vulture for his vehicle (nilagridhrâ-vāhana). On Sir W Jones's plate he is mounted on an elephant, and Budha on

<sup>8</sup> Such as are represented at Sanchi; of. Grunwedel, Buddhist Art in India (Eng. ed.), p. 34, fig. 10.

<sup>9</sup> On Sir W. Jones's plate it is hard to say whether the vahana is intended for a horse or not.

a vulture; but possibly these should be transposed. According to the Sabdakalpadruma, Sani is a Sudra by caste, of the Kåśyapa gôtra, belonging to Suråshtra, and born of the Sun; he sits on a vulture, holding an arrow in the upper right hand, the lower in the varadamudra, a śūla or trudent in the upper left hand and a bow in the lower. Yama is the first presiding divinity, and Pråjåpati the second. Sanis a planet of ill-omen-

His names are given as, -

Asita: Âra:

Koṇa; Krûradriś, Krûralôchana, Krûrâtman; Kroda:

Grahanâvaka:

Chhâyâ-tanaya, Chhâyâtmaja, Chhâyâsuta;

Nîlavasana, Nîlavâsas, Nîlâmbara,

Pangu; Pâtamgi;

Brahmanya or Brâhmanya;

Manda, Mandaga;

Rêvatîbhava;

Sani, Sanaischara; Sauri;

Saptâmsupumgava, Saptârchis, Saura, Sauri, Saurika. 10

8. The ascending node, Råhu, is painted black, with four arms, holding a sword, a spear, a shield, and bestowing a blessing, and the body ending in a tail; the Vishnu-Purana says eight black horses draw his dusky car, and, once harnessed, are attached to it for ever. Other representations give him a black lion, a tortoise, or

a flying dragon as his vehicle. On Moor's plate he is represented as a headless man with two hands, holding a club and a lily and riding on an owl with a human face (? a female Kinnara); and on Jones's plate it is an animal like a lynx. He is of Sûdra caste and of the Paithîna gôtra, according to the Sabdakalpadruma, and born of the Malaya mountain, black in colour and wearing a black garment, sitting on a lion, and having four hands, — in the upper right he holds a sword, in the lower a rada, in the upper left a śūla, and in the lower a shield. Kûlâ is the first presiding deity, and Sarpa the second.

His names are these -

Abhrapiśâcha; Graha; Kabandha; Kayâna; Tamas; Bhanîbhû; Râhu; Vidhumtuda; Saimhika or Saimhikôya; and Svarbhânu.

9. The descending node is Kêtu, who is represented as a head, painted green and placed on a frog or against the cushion of a gaddi. He is of the Súdra caste and Jaimini gôtra, and from the (?) Krauñchadvîpa country, of the colour of smoke, wears a smoke-coloured garment, and sits on a vulture; one of his hands is in the varadamudra, and the other holds a mace. Chitragupta is the first presiding deity, and Brahma is the second. He is called—

Akacha; Aślêshâbhava or Aślêshâbhû; Kêtn; and Muṇḍa.

J. BURGESS.

# NOTES AND QUERIES.

# SOME DISAPPEARING PREJUDICES OF THE PARSIS.

Considering the position that the energetic Parsis now hold in the very front of all Indian peoples in regard to education, progress and social freedom, the following extracts from some reminiscences of one of the pioneers of reform among the Parsis will be of interest to those who would mark down old customs and superstitions before they disappear. Mr. K. N. Kabraji is the writer, and he writes of "Fifty years ago."

# 1. - Medical Education.

What a wonderful change has been effected in the popular sentiment with regard to higher education, in the course of fifty years! In these days the Grant Medical College is overflowing with students of all communities. But when it was established in 1845, so intense was the prejudice of the natives against what they regarded as the contamination of dead bodies and human bones, that for a time it was very much feared that the public endowment fund, amounting to Rs. 1,25,000, for the institution had been simply thrown away. Inducements were therefore held out to students in order to set the institution going. Not only were they admitted free, but every one was given a stipend of Rs. 10 per month.

Some of the boys attended it in opposition to the wishes of their parents, who were gravely offended and deeply scandalized by their sons' violation, as they fancied, of the canons of their religion I myself was a victim to this superstition. My father wanted me to go to the College;

<sup>10</sup> Hêmachaudra (Abhidhâna-Chintâmani, áll. 116-121) gives a list of the names of the planetary divinities, — which has been enlarged in the above. In áll. 121-22 he adds six names of Râhu and four of Kêtu.

but my mother would not, for a moment, entertain the idea of her son committing the grave sin of touching dead bodies. The first doctors were mostly Parsis and they employed Parsi compounders, because in those days the community had an inveterate prejudice against taking food or water touched by a "heathen." The first patients of these medical men were also chiefly Parsis, as the popular prejudice against European treatment was exceedingly strong amongst Hindus and Mussalmans. Even at the present day the ignorant masses prefer to die at the hands of a hakim rather than be saved by Western methods of treatment. Again, in maternity cases the doctors had to bathe in the patient's house and change their clothes before leaving After a time one or two medical men protested against the objectionable custom, which died out sometime ago.

## 2. - Lying-in Customs.

I wish I could say the same of the barbarous custom of consigning women, at a most critical period of their lives, to dark, damp, and noisome rooms on the ground floor of the house for forty days together. If there is no close room available in which to shut them out so long from heaven's light and air, then a huge curtain, often made up of old rags, is put up, forming a dark and dismal enclosure for the unfortunate woman. Here she is doomed, in the name of religion, to live or die, as the Fates may direct, and although she may be very weak and ill, it is that same religion which absolutely forbids her better and healthier surroundings Although this custom is not yet quite dead, it is dying fast enough and will have perished altogether before another fifty years have elapsed. The Parsi Lying-in Asylum has contributed largely towards the accomplishment of this beneficent reform.

As if these hardships contrived by superstition were not enough, delicate women were subjected to other trials at the risk of their lives. Sometimes, parents took a vow to leave their daughters after delivery without food and water for a whole week. The Rast Goftar, assisted by the able pen of the late Dr. C. F. Khory, led a crusade against this senseless practice and succeeded in abolishing it. Among other superstitious rites performed on the occasion was one called chokhiar, in which, as the name implies, rice formed the principal element. It was usually performed as a last resort when a woman felt dangerously ill and her recovery by means of human skill was despaired of. The children of neighbours and relatives were invited; they were washed and arranged in clean linen, and were

treated to a dinner consisting of rice, milk, and pulse curry. A lamp, fed by ghi, was kept alight near the spot, and water-pots, cocoanuts, fruits, and flowers were placed near it, to which the friends and relatives of the patient made phyi. If any one's children did not live to grow up, there was another ceremony for the invocation of divine grace on the unfortunate mother. It would take long to describe the various rites performed on such occasions. Suffice it to say that they have nearly all ceased to exist.

## 3. - The First English Doctors.

In the old days doctors went about in palanquins, which made a great impression on many of their patients. The early doctors, being the first in the field, had extensive practice, although at the commencement they had to contend against the prejudices of the people against Western methods of treatment. The people were mortally afraid of the application of a blister and regarded even the harmless mustard poultice with grave misgivings Indeed, it was believed that the doctor applied a blister only in extreme cases, when all his resources had failed and when there were few chances of the life of his patient being saved. When this remedy was resorted to, there was mourning and lamentation in the house.

## 4. - The Importation of Ice.

Ice is now a blessing in many cases of sickness; but people looked askance at it when it first began to be imported from America.

In September, 1884, the first consignment of ice was sent from America to the firm of Jehanghir Nusserwanjee Wadia in Bombay. It was sold at 4 annas per pound. The native looked upon it as a great curiosity, and it was sometime before it made its appearance at the table of the rich. The first Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy introduced ice at a dinner given to some friends, and a few days afterwards it was gravely reported in the Bombay Sumāchār that both the host and his guests had fallen ill with cold. They had had the temerity to use an unknown foreign substance, and had to pay the penalty.

I was once taken by my father to the ice-house—the globular building next to the Great Western Hotel—and brought home a piece with me, and I remember the ladies viewed it as a strange substance with great wonder and curiosity. Acrated waters, too, were a novelty in the old days. When a soda-water bottle was first brought to my father's house, on opening it, the cork flew up with a loud report, the ladies ran away affrighted, and they would not drink

the "smoking water" themselves, nor would they allow me to touch it.

#### 5. - Social Reform.

Most unenviable was the lot of Parsi women fifty years ago. They could not freely walk forth in the street. They could not appear in public. If they went out in a rekld, all the curtains were down, that bold bad eyes might not look at them. I remember that the community was deeply scandalized when the late Ardesheer Hormasjee Wadia began to drive out in an open carriage with his wife.

Those were days when boots and stockings were not worn by women. Many a bitter controversy has raged round the vexed question of shoe-leather. The first wearers of boots and stockings were malignantly reviled and abused. Nay, in the good old days of country shoes, it required no little courage on the part even for men to change them for English boots, nor was it considered proper to wear socks with country shoes. I remember that some gentlemen began wearing socks on the plea of ill-health, before they ventured to adopt them as a regular part of their dress. Now that English boots and stockings are so common among both sexes of the Parsi community, it seems quite a far off age when the wearing of them provoked such rancour and resentment.

## 6. - Freedom for Parsi Women

It was not without a tough and prolonged struggle that rational freedom was obtained for Parsi women. Places of amusement were absolutely forbidden to them. When at last it was thought that it would be no crime to let them see a play or a circus, the performances were held exclusively for women I remember one of such performances given by Romanini's Circus forty-five years ago, when the male members of every family waited outside the tent till it was over at midnight. Not a few of them were wealthy Shethias, who complaisantly loafed about or enjoyed a comfortable doze in their carriages, awaiting the return of the ladies of their household. And what precautions and safeguards were then considered necessary, even in the case of such rigidly exclusive gatherings, at MacCallum's Circus forty years ago. The tickets were sold by means of a private circular confined to families of known respectability, and the names of intending visitors were recorded in a special list in order that no persons of doubtful repute might smuggle in. All the preliminaries in connection with MacCallum's Circus were carried out by the late Ardesheer Moos and Nanabhai Ranina, and the assemblage of ladies in their multi-coloured dresses and dazzling ornaments was so splended and magnificent that the circus proprietor, new to such sights, exclaimed, "Ah! if I could get up such a spectacle in London, my fortune is made!" Not that women were then too ignorant to appreciate the happiness of freedom. In my carly days, I have often heard women, even old ones, say, on beholding Europeans of both sexes driving together in open carriages, "Alas, that it should not be our lot to be as happy as they are!"

## 7. - Early Mixed Gatherings.

Many more years elapsed before mixed gatherrings became common among the Parsis. The first notable gathering of Parsi ladies and gentlemen was witnessed on the occasion of the festivities attending the birth of the late Prince Albert Victor. An entertainment to the school children of the town was given on the Esplanade. when a number of respectable Parsis appeared with their wives and walked arm-in-arm with them. The sight created quite a sensation. The movement in this behalf was led by the late Maneckjee Cursetjee, a sturdy old veteran in the cause of social reform. He was among the very first of those who freely went about with their wives and daughters arrayed in boots and stockings, and he manfully braved the vile scandals and objurgations to which he was subjected for years by the foolish majority of his community.

Theatrical performances were ordinarily held for men only. When a special performance was advertised for families, it was carefully stipulated beforehand that no men unaccompanied by their female relatives would be allowed admission. As the promoter of theatrical companies in former days, I myself framed some strict rules in this behalf.

# MUHAMMADAN WORSHIP OF FIRE.

Dr. (now Sir Districh) Brander, when at Gorakhpur 30 or 40 years ago, visited a certain Miyân Sâhib who kept a fire going as a religious duty—apparently a quasi worship of fire. He owned a sal forest: and this supplied fuel for his fire. He was a most interesting man and charmed his visitor: a man of liberal and loyal spirit, for he protected Christians in the Mutiny, and he subscribed to the schools attached to the local Mission, of which the Rev. Mr. Stern was the head. The memory of such a man should be preserved. I wonder if it still lives in Gorakhpur.

W. COLDSTREAM.

# JANGNAMAH OF SAYYAD 'ĀLIM 'ALĪ KHĀN, A HINDI POEM BY SŪDISHT.

BY WILLIAM IRVINE, LATE OF THE BENGAL CIVIL SERVICE.

(Concluded from p. 9.)

345 Yakāyak dhundhūkār paidā hū,ā, Nizāmāņ kā lashkar huwedā hu,ā. Hū,ī hānk lashkar mon chāron kadhan, Zamīn thartharī aur larzā gagan. Kharā ho-ke jazbī senā nikāl,

350 Kīyā josh men a-ke rukhiyā ko lāl:
"Napat kar-ke shokhī, wah chal ā,e hain,
"Mūjhe kyā, magar mom kā pā,e hain,

"Zamīn dhas-ke gar ghār ho jāegā,

"Gagan tūt-kar sar pab ā-jāegā,

355 "Larūn yā marūņ kār-i-faujāņ chalā,o, "Tū, 'Ālim 'Alī, lohū kī nadivān bahā.o.

"Ba-ḥaqq-i-khudāwand-i-parwardigār,

"Jab lak jīū tan moņ, karūņ kārzār,"

Harāwal kīyā Mutahavvar Khān kon,
360 Dīyā sang Salīm Khān, Mathī Khān kon,
Dalel Mahamdī Beg, Mirzā 'Alī,
Jahān talag the sardār jodhā, balī.
Kahā: "Tūm harāwal ke sabh sāth jāo,
"Harāwal ko ūn sāth begī milāo."

365 Amīn Khān ko bole, kih: "Sun to tehū bāt,

" Tūmeņ fauj kāmil le apne sanghāt,

"Chalo mihrbanī son sīdhī taraf,

"Tūmhārī shujā'at moņ nahīņ kuchh ḥaraf,

"Tumen mard-i-Dakhin mon ho be-miṣāl,

370 "Yihī bāt tahqīq be-qīl-o-qāl,

"Khare ho-ke rahne mon dastā khalal,

"Gaya dür harawal hamara nikal,

"Madad jo ā,e ho, to kūchh kar dikhāo,

" Ho be-shak āpas dīl moņ, khānḍā bajāo,

375 "Talo-ge, to sabh fauj ṭal jāegī,

"Balā mūjh akele ke sar ā,egī,

"Wahī howegā jo hai Rabb kī razā,

"Main hūn sab 'azīzān son sabh safā." Kahā 'Umr Khān kon: "Raho dast-i-chap,

380 "Marhattān kī faujān kon le sāth sab,

"Tumhārī merī kuchh judā,ī nahīņ,

"Tumen khwesh ho, kuchh sipāhī nahīn,

"Tumhārī merī sharm sabh ek hai,

"Karoge wahī jis moņ jo nek hai,

All at once a dust arose,
The Nizām's army was descried.
There were shouts in the army on all sides,
The earth shook and the heavens trembled.
He arose and brought forth a raging army,
By his ardour his face was reddened:

"Full of insolence he has advanced,

"What care I, for he has feet of wax.

"The earth will give way, a hollow will form,

"The skies will melt and descend on his head,

"Let me fight or die, let the armies engage,

"Thou, 'Alim 'Alī, cause bloody rivers to flow,

"By help of the Lord, who is the Cherisher,

"\$0 long as I breathe, shall I prolong the battle."

He placed Mutahavvar Khān in the vanguard, Sent with him Salīm Khān and Mathī Khān, Dalel Muhamdī Beg, and Mirzā 'Alī, Whatever leaders he had, brave and bold. He said: "Follow all of you the leader of the van, "Delay not, quickly engage with their vanguard." To Amīn Khān he said: "Hark to my word,

"Take out a full force of your troops,

"Be pleased to move to the right wing,

"Against your valour no word can be said,

"You among Dakhinis have not your equal,

"This fact is admitted without contestation,

"Mere standing idle brings ruin on the squadron,

"My vanguard has advanced and is far off,

"You came to help, so show what you can do, "Cast out doubt from your heart, ply your sword,

"If you yield ground, the whole army gives way,

"The calamity will fall on my friendless head,

"Whatever happens it is the Lord's will,

"I have no grievance against any of my friends." He said to 'Umr Khān: "Take place on the left,

"Make all the Mahrattahs follow you.

"You and I can never have separate aims.

"You are a relation not a mere trooper,

"You and I shall be one in any reverse,

"You will perform whatever is right,

- 385 "Duniyā do pahar ke yah jyūn jahānon hai,
  - "Janam lag kise kā nah abh thanon hai.
  - " Agar haī sharm, to yah jiwanā bhulā,
  - "Wagarnah zahr khā-ke, marnā bhalā;
  - "Khabardar ho, dil mon kuchh dar nah lao,
- 390 "Jyūn hai shart, tyūn khūb hāthān chalā,o,"
  Līyā sāth apne rahā so hashm,
  Chale khūsh ho āhistah yak yak qadām.
  So īse mon ā-kar kahā ko suwār:
  - "Harāwal pai Şāḥib ke hai rozgār,
- 395 "Rahī fauj jahān ke tahān sab haṭak,
  "Chale haɪn jidhar ke ūdhar sab thaṭak,
  - "Parā shor jodhā barā par thathak,"

Sūnā aur chilāyā jaisī bijlī karak; Jo hote agar Rustam, Afrasyāb, 400 To hargiz nah karte wah aisā shitāb. Parā tūt jazbī so aisā karak,

> Kis-se mānjā jo sambhāle dharak? Uthā fauj, lashkar mon gard, ghabār, Kih jānon qiyāmat hū,ā ashkār.

- 405 Hū,ā shor o ghūl ghulghulā fauj moņ, Sayādat ke daryā yak mauj moņ, Maqābal hū,ā, ur kahā hānk mār: "Waṭn hai sipāhi kā khānde kī dhār.
- "Ajab din, 'ajab waqt hai, āj kā, 410 "Bhale mard ke qadr-i-mi'rāj kā." Kahā: "Kahān hai sardār is fauj kā, "Jo dekhe tamāghā merī mauj kā,
  - " Milen ham o tum ham ko armān hai,
- "Țalo mat, yah mardon kā maidān hai,
  415 "Mūjhe bān golī son tūm mat ḍarā,o;
  "Nishā hai to haudaj son haudaj milā,e."
  Lagā mārnen tīr kar-kon pe ā,
  Dīyā fauj yakbārgī sabh halā;
  Chalāne lagā tīr par tīr kon.
- 420 Hazār āfrīn mard-i-randhir kon!

Guzar jā,e chillah, aur baktar koņ phor, Zirah kī kariyāņ, ḍhāl ke phūl tor;

Jaisī tīr marī karo moņ milā,e, Sakat kīyā ūse jodh phir sar ūṭhā,e.

- "This world is for a few hours, it seems more like hell.
- "No one has any power to cling to life.
- "If we come to shame this life is a mere fraud.
- "In that case to take poison and to die is better:
- "Be on the alert, let no fear enter into your heart.
- "As duty demands, strike oft and hard."

He took with him all his state and following,

He advanced rejoicing, slowly, step by step.

At this point there came a horseman and said:

- "My lord's vanguard is engaged,
- "The men on all sides were driven back,
- "They have fled hither and thither in disorder,
- "Confusion reigns, the fighters are all at a standstill."

He heard and roared like a clap of thunder;

If Rustam and Afrasyāb had been there,

Never could they have been so quick.

The order of this great army had fallen to pieces.

Who was there to rally it after the crash?

From the army rose dust in clouds,

It seemed as if Judgment Day had dawned.

Then arose shouts and cries from the army.

That wave of the sea of Lordship

Advanced to the attack, and said shouting:

- "The home of the soldier is the sword's sharp edge,
- "A chosen day, a choice time is this.
- "To brave men it is as the ascent to heaven."

He said: "Where is the lord of this army.

- "That he may see the vision of my wave-like ranks.
- "Our meeting, you and I, is what I ardently long for.
- "Evade me not, this is the battle-plain of heroes.
- "Think not to daunt me with rocket or bullet.
- "If assured, then range our haudahs side by side."

He began to shoot arrows, moving his hands,

With a sudden shout, he urged on the charge:

His arrows flew one after the other.

A thousand braves for the man of battle, the hero!

His bow-string wore out, his armour was rent, The links of his mail, the bosses of his shield all broken.

As an arrow struck, he added it to its ring, Ever he fought on, raised his head once more. 425 Hū,ā do gharī lak hazāron kadhal,

Chalen fauj mūnh par tain sārī nīkal, Jo haudaj thī mūnh par sen sabh ṭal ga,e, Phirā pīṭh yakbāragī chal ga,e. Kahīn the, 'azīzān, yah 'Ālim 'Alī!

430 Magar āj ḥāzir hū,ā hai 'Alī.
Ilāhī! yūh kis nūr kā nūr hai,
Jawānī, shujā'at so ma 'mūr hai!
Kīyā tab hukm: "Beg naubat bajā,o,
"Rakho dil qavvī aur ghore chalā,o.

435 Raho jyūn the tyūn, ho khare thar thar,

Hathī urbadī kul piyāde, suwār, Chaliyā koī mashriq, chaliyā koī janūb, Chaliyā ko shamāl, aur gayā ko gharūb. Bulānen lage fauj kon: "Ā,o, re!

440 Fath hai, fath, koi mat jā,o, re!
"Phiro, re, phiro, nang son dūr hai,
"Namak khā-ke bhāge, so maqhūr hai!"
Yah sun-kar kahā Sayyad-i-pāk-bāz;

- "Ayā, bas hai hamanā madad-i-kārsāz;
  445 "Jo bhāgā, so kyā ūske bhar ās hai,
  "Yah marnā shahādat mūjhe khās hai."
  Kharā ran moņ Sayyad āpas zāt soņ,
  Ga,ī fauj sārī nikal hāth soņ.
  Mahāwat ko bolā kih: "Hāthī chalā;o."
- 450 Kahā tab Ghālib 'Alī Khān son yahī yūņ bulā.o:
  - "Main is fauj kon azmaya nahîn,
  - " Kapat in ke dil kā main pāyā nahīn,
  - "Daghā de-ke mūjh ko nikālā shitāb,
  - "Qiyamat mon kya denge Haqq ka juwab?
- 455 "Muḥabbat ke kūchh kis mane yās nahīņ,
  - "Dekho, dostān ko mere pās nahīn,
  - "Ba-har-ḥāl, dunyā yah guzarāṇ hai!
  - "Haṭūn kyā main! Ab kyā merā shān hai!"

Ghālib Khān yūn bolā: "Ai Sayyad! Imām! 460 "Nako kūchh karo dil mon ab fikr-i-khām!

- Mako Kucha Karo un mon ao mara zinam
- "Jab lak tan mon hai dam, laren jān-niṣār,
- "Rahegā yah 'ālam mane yādgār." Nāṣir Khān, Ghorī, son bole Nawāb:
- " Mile mil ga,e sabh ih khānak-kharāb;

For full forty minutes there were a thousand efforts.

The army all fled from before his face,
The canopied elephants all retreated,
They turned tail and all at once made off.
Say, O friends, was this then 'Alim 'Ali !
Was it not rather 'Ali himself?
O God! what perfect effulgence is this,
Full of youth, complete in valour!
Then he gave order: "Quickly beat the drums,
"Be bold of heart and urge your horses on."
They stuck where they were: they stood in

Horse and foot, all were in a flurry, Some went east, some went south, Some to the north, others to the west.

groups,

- He began to rally his men: "Come on! Hie!
  "It is a victory, a victory, let no one retire! Hie!
- "Turn, I say, turn, this is fatal to honour!
- "He who eats salt, then flees, is accursed!"

  Having shouted this, said the pure-hearted

  Sayyad:
- "The help of the Helper remains to me;
- "What sort of hope can there be from fugitives,
- "To die thus is a favoured martyrdom."

The Sayyad stood solitary in the battle-field,

His army had gone, was all out of hand,

He said to the elephant man: "Urge on the elephant."

- Then turning to <u>Ghālib</u> 'Alī <u>Khān</u> he spoke on this wise:
- "I had never put these troops to the test,
- "Their falseness of heart I had not found out,
- "They have deceived me, and at once thrown me over!
- "At the Resurrection what will they say to the Judge?
- "They have no affection, nothing can be expected of them.
- "See, there are no friends left around me,
- "Be it so, this world is only a passing show!
- "I will never budge! What would then be my reputation!
- Ghālib Khān spoke thus: "O Lord and Priest!
- "Do not let your mind take up wrong ideas,
  "So long as breath remains, we fight and give
- "So long as breath remains, we fight and give our lives,
- "In this world we shall be ever remembered."
  To Nāṣir Khān, the Ghorī, spoke the Nawāb:
- 20 Itabit Ithan, and orderly species and area.
- "They are traitors, all these scoundrels;

- 465 "'Azīzāņ! jo kūchh hai, so taqdīr soņ,
  - " Mitā nā sake keī tadbīr soņ."
    Kīyā Shekh Faizū ne ā-kar 'arz,
    Jo jānā kih marnā hū,ā hai farz :
    "Nawāb! ab rahā shahr kā dekhnā,
- 470 "Larā,ī nahīņ, yah hū,ā sekhnā."

  The is guftgūe moņ, o thā yah bichār,
  Phirī fauj-i-Sayyad, pare gul ekbār,

Paṛā ma'rkā tīr aur bān kā, Machā raṇ-kadhan phir pare<u>sh</u>ān kā,

- 475 Kīyā qaṣd ik dil kā ahl-i-gharūr, Kih chadhe jyūņ ā-ke daryā kā pūr. Hazār āfrīn tūjh koṇ, 'Ālim 'Alī! Kahūṇ sūryā, bīr, jodhā, balī! Barā chhoṭ āsan soṇ mahāwat nikal,
- 480 Lagā pānw hāthī dhakāya akal.
  Ghiyās Khān koņ itne moņ golā lagā,
  Lagā sūjh hāthī ūpar soņ dhakā,
  Parā morchhal hāth soņ chhuṭ-kar,
  Rahā dekh Sayyad to ho khūnt-kar.
- 485 Ṭake the kam-o-besh kul sau jawān,
  Hote karo Sayyad ke sabh khūn-fishān.
  Hāthī thā, wa thā āp, yā thā Khudā,
  Hū,ī sāth son sabh sanghātī judā.
  Do tarkash le īse mon khālī kīyā,
- 490 Sakal tan ko zakhmān son jālī kīyā.

  Lagī tīr bhar le ūsī tīr kon,

  Chalāwe bharā kar badī dhīr son,

  Lagā kar chille kon bhī ainchī kamān,

  Lagāwe jis-se sūr hī Alā mān.
- 495 Yakāyak lagī mūnh par ā, pānch tīr, Hū,ī pār gāliyān ke, pardān ko chīr, Līyā ainch kar aur kīyā khūb zor, Rahā so saṭā pānch kādha maror. Lagā tīr phir anyā gosh kon;
- 500 Saṭā kādh bhī is koṇ, ā hosh moṇ. Nazīk ā-ke ūs fauj kā ko amīr, Lagāyā peshānī mo angekht-i-tīr, Nikāle, to hargiz nikaltā nahīṇ, Kīyā zor, pun zor chaltā nahīṇ.
- 505 Saṭā chūr aur bhār kar wahān kā wahān, Dīyā juwāb ūs tīr kā dar zamān; Paṛā āge ghore son jab wah amīr, Kahā: "Kyā jawān-mard hai, be-nazīr!" So iti mon ko aur haudaj-suwār
- 510 Hū,ā sāmhne, dil kon kar istwār;

- "My friends! whatever happens is the work of Fate.
- "It cannot be wiped away by any device."
  Shekh Faizū came and made his statement,
  He who knew that to die was strict duty:
- "Nawāb! Now has come the time to repair to the city,
- "This is not a fight, it is a lesson."

  Talk was going on, plans being discussed,

  When the Sayyad's troops returned, there was sudden outcry,

A battle with arrows and rockets began.

Fierce fighting was renewed by the fugitives,

Men of repute resolved with one intent

To ride on into the midst of the battle-flood.

A thousand bravos to thee, O 'Alim 'Alı!

I call thee hero, champion, fighter, valorous!

He knocked the driver from his seat with a mighty blow,

Began to kick the elephant vigorously. Soon Ghyas Khan received a bullet, He lay stretched on his elephant motionless, His peacock fan fell from his hand, He gazed at the Sayyad, then lay like a log. More or less, a hundred men stood fast, They all gave their life-blood for the Sayvad. One elephant, and himself! What else but God! All his followers had quitted his company. Two full quivers he took then and emptied, His whole body was pierced like a sieve. Whatever arrow struck, he drew out and returned it, He advanced shooting with great coolness, He seized his bow-string, he drew his bow, He shot as if he were the hero Alah. Of a sudden five arrows struck his face, They pierced his cheeks and cut his eyelids. He drew them out, making great effort. As all werein a clump, the five came out by one twist. Once more a sharp arrow hit him on the ear; Coming to his senses he pulled it also out. Drawing near, some noble from the other army, Hit him on the forehead by shooting an arrow, No effort succeeded in drawing it, He tried hard, but force did not avail. He applied dust, and filled it there and then, Answered by another arrow as soon as he could. As he fell from his horse that noble Exclaimed: "How brave he is, without rival!" Meanwhile someone drew near riding an elephant And faced him, bracing up his heart;

Lagāyā use tīr aisā <u>sh</u>ītāb, Jo de nā sakā pher ūskā jawāb. Yahī īse moņ ā koī, nezā sambhāl, Gharūrī seņ Sayyad pah de de nīkāl.

515 Jo dekhā ūse tīr māryā ūchhal;
Parā nīche ghore ūpar ten nikal,
Dikhā mūnh jhokāwe, nigaron phir ā,e.
Hathī ko ishārat son āge chalā,e.
So īse mon ko pīrzādah, faqīr,

520 Napat bānk, paṭe mon thā be-nazīr, Hathī hūl ā-ke hū,ā rū-ba-rū, Kih jānon Nizāmu-l-mulk hū-bah-hū. Yakāyak ūse tīr aisā jaryā Jo haudaj men be-hosh ho wah paryā;

525 Zakhm par zakhm jab lage pech-o-tāb, Hū,ā sust ţuk Sayyad-i-'alā-janāb. Prān ā-pare, mār talwār ke, Bade zor ke, aur bade thār ke; 'Azīzān ga,e chhūţ, sāre nikal,

530 Nah sīdhī baghl ko, nah dāṇwī baghl;
Jidhar dekhtā hai, ūdhar "Mār! Mār!"
Kahā: "Jo raṣā-i-pāk-i-parwardigār!"
Saṭā hāth himmat soṇ shamsher par,
Neohar-kar lagāwe jis haudaj ūpar,

535 Saţe dhāl, haudaj kī dandiyān ko kāt, Lage jahān tahān khol de chaukiyāţ. Līyā ā-ke jodhān ne haudaj kon gher; Rakhā jīwanā bahut hīyā dil daler, Do hāthān son shamsher bāzī kīyā;

540 Magar Karbalā bhar-ke tāzī kīyā. To īse moņ ā ek golī lagī, Wah golī nahīņ, balkih haulī lagī. Kahā: "Ko nafr hai, to pānī pılāo, "Kahāņ āb-bardār hai, leo, bulā,o!"

545 Nah pānī athā wahān, nah koī āb-dār. Lagā ronhen jo larne ke tān be-yās mār; Jase tīr mārī, karī chūr chūr, Jab lak tan mon jīū thā, o tab lak shu,ūr; Ankhiyā par ten lohū chal-āyā be-shumār,

550 I agā pūnchhan apne rūmāl kār, Bandhī munh pai jālī lohū ke tamām, Rahā dekhne son wah Sayyad, Imām. Sūnwāe 'azīzān-i-roshan-zamīr, Lagī ekale tan pai chhatīs tīr,

555 The nau wār neze o talwār ke, Wahm nahīn kīya kūchh is azār ke, Nawāre luhū ke ūchhal ban lage, Nikal bhār haudaj son chalnan lage. Yah thā ek tan, wah hazārān ke ghol, 560 Hū,ā ma'rke mon judā sar son khol, He shot him, too, with an arrow so quickly, That he had no time to give it an answer. On this came someone grasping a spear, With boldness advanced to attack the Sayyad. Seeing this he sprang up and shot an arrow; The man fell from his horse to the ground, He reeled, showed his face, his eyes turned. With a touch he urged on his elephant. Thereupon one of a saintly line, a mendicant, Absolutely peerless with bent dagger and rapier, Driving his elephant came face to face, You might take him for Nizām-ul-Mulk himself. Of a sudden this man so struck him with an arrow That he fell down on his seat and fainted: From wound after wound he twisted and turned, He was a little weakened, was the lofty Lord. Coming to his senses, he used his sword, With great force, with the greatest skill: His friends had left him, all had bolted, None was on the right hand, none on the left: Wherever you look, there came "Strike, Strike." He said: "The pure will of the Cherisher be done!" He laid hand with courage on his sword. When, stooping, he brought it down on a haudah, It pierced the shield and cut the haudah's frame, Wherever it fell, the woodwork broke to pieces. The fighters came and stood round the haudah: He held his breath, hardened his heart, With both hands he wielded his sword; Nay, he played out Karbalā in full. On this there came a bullet and hit him, It was not a ball, it was Fate itself. He said: "Is there no one, give me water, "Where is the butler, bring him, call!" No water was there, no butler to be found. He fell to weeping, all hope of fighting o'er: He had shot on, cut them into little bits, So long as breath was left, and any sense; From his eye much blood did flow, He began wiping it, taking his handkerchief, His face was all covered with streaks of blood, That Sayyad and Priest could see no longer. Friends have told us, clear of mind, That on his single body were thirty-six wounds. Nine were gashes of spear and sabre, He paid no heed to these hurts. Fountains of blood began to spurt, Came out of the haudah and flowed onward. This was one man, they a crowd of thousands. In battle-field the head was severed from its case,

Lagā jab sete ā-ke golā nadān, Nīkal rūḥ tan taiņ, kīyā tab ūdān,

Jigar ṭūṭ, lohū jab āya haluk, Chale, ḥaif! tan par tain lagan ḍhaluk.

565 Mughal ā chadhe tūt haudaj ūpar, Mū,e par lage mārnen phir khanjar. Nah jīū thā, nah kūchh rūh kā thā nishān, Nah dam thā, nah kis kār hāthā na jān, Dīyā dāl haudaj tale Khān kon,

570 So ūs koņ bhare la'l-i-be-jān koņ;
Thī tārī <u>kh</u> navvīņ jo Shawwāl kī.
Hū,e <u>sh</u>ahr moņ <u>kh</u>abar is hāl kī,
Maḥal moṇ dīyā jā kaheṇ yah <u>kh</u>abar
Kih tal ūpar hai āj sārā shahr,

575 Kahte hain jo 'Ālīm 'Alī <u>Kh</u>ān kon, Sayādat ke masnad ke Sultān kon, Līyā mār la<u>sh</u>kar awārā hūwā. Imāmat ke ghar mon andhārā hūwā, Chhipā jag sete wah mubārik-badan,

580 'Alī ke <u>kh</u>izānah kā <u>kh</u>āṣā ratn. Lejāne kī begī, <u>sh</u>itābī kīyā,

> Le jā-kar, dekho, <u>kh</u>arābī kīyā. Hū,ā ghulelā gul maḥal moṇ tamām,

Jo khānā o pānī hū,ā sabh ḥarām, 585 Ūthī māeņ afsos kar, āh mār, Kare ghul son be jān-ke kahān, be-chār! Zamīn sakht hai, āsmān dūr hai, Dard mān dekho <u>Kh</u>ān kī hūr hai! Kahī mā: "Ai farzand mere, nau-nihāl,

590 "Hū,ā dekhnā mujh-kon terā maḥāl! "Kahān hai tū, farzand, 'Ālim 'Alī! "Terī gham son sar panw lag main jalī!

" Falak-i-be-mihr ne kyā kīyā sitam!

"Ganeo āyā mere dhakdhakī kā padam!

595 " $\overline{\mathbf{U}}$ jālā mere ghar ke īwān kā!

" Falak badr pūr-i-nūr āsmān kā! " Mere zeh o zīnat kā thā cul cul

"Mere zeb o zīnat kā thā gul, gulāb,

"Torā-kar kīyā sabh chaman kon kharāb.

"Hū,ā 'aish o ārām mon kyā khalal,

600 "Qiyamat lagon tab rahega yah masal —

" Hazār ārzū aur armān soņ

" Main pālā thā 'Alim 'Alī Khān kon,

" Kahāņ wah, kahāņ ūs kī jawānī ga,ī?

"Sakal khāk moņ ūskī jawānī ga,ī.

When there came a ball of a sudden.

His soul fled from his body, he gave up vital breath,

His liver burst, and when blood came lightly
It began, alas! to run down from the body.
A Mughal climbed violently on to the haudah,
Began once more to strike the face with his hanger.

There was no life, nor any sign of breath,

He breathed not, he had no movement of life.

The Khān was thrown down from the haudah,

Thus they dealt with that life-bereft jewel;

It was the 9th of the month of Shawwal. News was brought to the city of this thing,

They went into the women's rooms to tell them.

That to-day all the city is in confusion,

It is said that 'Alim 'Akī Khān,

King of the throne of the Sayyads,

Has been killed by an invading army.

Darkness has fallen on the Priestly house,
That blessed hody is hidden from the world.

That blessed body is hidden from the world, That choice jewel of the treasure house of 'Ali.

In taking his army forth he was too quick and hasty.

Having taken it, see what harm has been done. There was weeping and wailing throughout the palace,

All eating and drinking were forsaken.

His mother arose, with sadness and sighing, She wailed, knowing not where she was, poor soul! The earth is hard, the heavens far away,

Behold the woe of the <u>Khān</u>'s mother, O Houri! His mother sobbed: ''O son of mine in youthful

"To see thee once more is not allowed me!

beauty!

"Where art thou, O son, my 'Alim 'Ali!

"For grief of thee I burn from head to foot!

"Oh cruel heavens, what violence have you done!

"Lost is my necklet's most lovely jewel!

"Cast down the gateway-pillar of my house!

"My moon of heaven in a sky of light!

" Of all adornments he was the rose of roses,

"By pulling it the whole flower-bed is ravaged.

"O how are my ease and delight destroyed,

"To Resurrection Day this will stand an example—

"With a thousand desires and longings

"I have tended my 'Alim 'Alī Khān,

"Whither is he fled, where has his youth vanished?

"Under the earth has his whole youth vanished,

- 605 "Kahūņ kya, jo pūchhenge mūjh koņ Nawāb:
  - ·"'Kahāṇ hai wah farzand, mubārik-naqāb?
  - "' Apas hāth son kyūn ganwāyā ūsen
  - " 'Nanhan 'umr men kyūn khapāyā ūsen,
  - "' 'Mana' nā kīyā kyūņ tum is bāt koņ,
- 610 "'Ganwāyā bahādur mere sāth soņ!'" Nah khāwe, nah pīwe, achhe zār zār, Machhī jyun taraphtī hai, tyūn be-qarār, Ho be-khūd kahe tal milā hānk mār;
- "Ai Ḥāfiṇ! Ai Nāṣir! Ai Parwardigār! 615 "Pakar hāth sompā thā, yā Rabb, tūjhe!

  - "Sabab kyā jo phir nā dikhāyā mūjhe!
  - "Thi umed yahî dil mon didar ki,
  - "Meri fauj, lashkar ke sardār ki;
  - "Kahte the: 'Fath pā par ke jab āwenge,
- 620 "' Yahī sūrat navvīn sar tain dikhlā denge."
  - "Phir āwan kī khabarān men khairāt kī,
    - "Khhabar kūchh nah thī mujh kon is bāt kī.
      - " Are! Koī is gham kā dārū batāo,
      - "Mūjhen is ghadryān sen begī chhodāo."
- 625 Ho be-sudh parī, hosh, sudh, budh ghawāe: Ankhiyān tain anchhū dhal jhote jawāe,

Maḥal ke jite log zer-o-zabar, Pare ḥaif khā khā-ke, sabh be-<u>kh</u>abar, Kahen kyūn, mahal mon andhārā dise;

630 Khudā bāj ko nahīņ kahīņ ab kise, Na faryād koņ ko, na kafr dayād koņ.

> Ga,e har tarah Daulatābād koņ; Shahr, mulk thā, jin ke farmān moņ, Se yūņ jā paŗe, koh-i-wairān moņ.

- 635 Nah thā kis kon zahrah, na kis kon majāl, Sake mār dam, yā kare kūchh suwāl, Chhadhāwe le-jā pal mon aflāk par, Sate pal mane khāk kā khāk kar. Tūlā Rām, dīwān, Kāyath, qadīm,
- 640 Ithā sāth ūs ḥādiṣah men khadīm.

Parinde ko tāqat nah pankh mārne, Nah yārāe athā, kis koṇ dam kārne; Jase pāedārī, so nā-yāb hai, Yah dunyā, dekho, sar-ba-sar khwāb hai.

- 645 Gyā lūt mon māl, asbāb sab, Yah qiṣṣah nahīn, hai hikāyat-i-'ajab; Jo bolen bachan sūjh dastūr thā, Karm rāt-din jin kā mashhūr thā, Kahān wah damāme, naqāre, nishān,
- 650 Kahān wah 'arābah, kahān top, bān,

- "What shall I say when the Nawab asks me:
- "'Where is that blessed son, O veiled one?
- "'From your hand why allow him to be lost.
- "'In youthful years why made you away with him,
- " 'Wherefore did you not forbid his action,
- ""You have lost for me that brave one!"
- She ate not, she drank not, wept without ceasing, Ever restless like a fish in its death-throes,
- Out of her senses, tossing about, calling aloud;
- "O Guarder! O Helper! O Cherisher!
- "Taking his hand I made him over, O Lord, to Thee!
- "Why have you not restored him to my sight!
- "This hope I cherished in my heart, to see him,
- "This leader of my army and forces;
- "He said: 'After the victory I will return,
- "' This form I will display to you anew.'
- " For news of his return I bestowed much alms.
- "Of this event I had not the least knowledge.
- "Alas! Tell me the physic for this sorrow,
- "Someone rescue me at once from this oppression."
  They lay senseless, all understanding eclipsed:

From the eyes of the young and lovely fell torrents of tears,

All those dwelling in the palace were lost in grief, With sobbing and sighing lying senseless,

What can I say, darkness fell on the palace;

Except it be God, who else is there now,

No one to complain to, no one to provide a winding-sheet.

Somehow or another they reached Daulatābād; She under whose orders had been city and country Went out thus, camped among the lonely hills. No one had the spirit, nor was it feasible — No one could say a word, or ask a question, He was carried off in a moment to the skies,

Hurriedly, in one moment, he returned to dust.
Tulā Rām, his dīwān, a Kāyath, of long service.

Did his duty and followed him in this sudden calamity.

A bird had not the power to flap its wings, No one had the power to breathe a word;

Lasting fame no one can attain,

This world, behold, is nothing but a dream.

Lost by plunder was all his baggage,

It is not an idle tale, it is a strange true story;

He whose custom it was to speak truth, He whose constant generosity was notorious,

Where are his hig drums, kettle-drums, standards,

Where are his guns, where his cannon and rockets,

Hazārān the ghore, hāthī be-shumār, Hazārān jharī dār the jinke duwār, Ṣadr masnadān jā-ba-jā, thār thār, Āgen ḥauz-i-lab-rez ur gul-i-bahār,

655 Kahān ṣalābat, kahān wah hukm, Kahān faul, lashkar, kahān wah ḥashm; Hazārān so bakhshish karen the madām, Sakal bādshāhī mon 'izzat-i-tamām.

Sūdishtā! yah kyā kīyā sitām! Hāe! hāe! 660 Yah dunyā hai aise koņ, kīyā koī na pāe, Kahāņ hai wah daulat, kahāņ wah ḥāl, 'Ajab qudratāņ teriyān, zu,l-jalāl! Kahe mil apas mon apan ahl-i-rāz, Sayādat kā nā-haqq dubāyā jahāz, 665 Nabwat kī angushtarī kā nagīn,

Jigar goshah-i-Fāṭimah bi,l-yaqīn, Parā gard lohū mane lāl ho, Girā ekalā ran moņ be-ḥāl ho; Yah gham jag moņ jab āshkārā hū,ā

670 Jigar tūt 'ālam kā, pārā hū,ā. Hazār āh, afsos, ai dostān! Chhipā, ḥaif!, dunyā tain wahū nau-jawān!

'Ajab Sayyad, 'ālā-nisbat, khān thā, Farāsat ke daftar kā Sultān thā,

675 Kahān dhundhiyān ab, kaho, Khān kon, Risālat ki motī pareshān kon? Nanhe 'umr mon kyun khapāyā üse? Le jā-kar, dekho, dukh dikhāyā use. Nah ārām dil kon, nah khātir qarār,

680 Jigar jal dharaktā hai, jaisā angār, Jī,e lag nah ab kıs tain yārī karen, Yah gham dıl mon rakh, burd-bārī karen;

Dunyā hai daghā-bāz, fānī-maqām, Hai dil bāndhnān is son bi,l-kull harām.

685 Qila'h kā qila'h-dār-i-'ālā-qadr Sayādat ke nāte pe rakh kar nagr, Līyā qıla'h moņ, ur kahā <u>āsh</u>kār; "Moin momin muselmān dān dār

"Main momin, musulmān, dīndār,

"Tumhāre mere lāj ik lāj hai.

690 "Merā qaul tūmanā sete āj hai, "Rafāqat tūmhārī jī ke sanghāt,

"Main jägīr, mansab tain dhowen hain hāth,

"Jo kūchh ho thārā karegā so ho,

"Main baithā hūn, sab bāt son hāth dho,

Thousands of horses, uncounted elephants,
With their abundance of jerks and whirls,
Seats of authority spread out in rows,
Before him full fountains and the blossoms of
spring,

Where is all that show, where all that splendour, Where army and camp, where all that array; For ever gave he thousands of gifts, Throughout the Empire had he completest honour.

O Südisht! what crime is this? Alas! wee is me! Such is this world, no one gets his due,
Where is that wealth, where that position,
Strange are Thy judgments, O Omnipotent!
Those in the secret say, gathered together,
The ship of the priestly line is wrecked,
The central stone in the signet ring of the Prophet's house,

The heart in the bosom of Fātimah, the veritable, He fell in the dust reddened with his blood, He fell in single combat all exhausted; When this grief became known to the world Everybody's heart broke and fell in pieces.

Alas! a thousand times alas! O friends!

Vanished from the world, O woe! is that comely youth!

A wonderful Lord of high degree, a Khān was he, King in the council of the sagacious.

Where now shall we seek, tell me, for that Khān, That scattered pearl of heavenly mission?

In tender age why have you destroyed him?

He was taken, you see, and beheld sorrow.

No peace for my mind, the heart never at rest, My liver on fire, blazing like a hot coal, All my life long no further friend have I,

Hiding this grief in my heart I will silently suffer;

The world is but a deceiver, a passing show,
Attachment to it is altogether wrong.
The fort-commander of high degree
Looked with favour on the Prophet's descendant,
Took her into the fort and said openly:

- "I am orthodox, a believer, a religious man,
- "Your desires and mine are one and the same.
- "This day I pledge you my word,
- "I take your side with heart and soul,
- "I wash my hands of rank and lands,
- "Come what come may,
- "Here I sit, having washed my hands of everything,

695 "Rakho dil-jama", aur <u>kh</u>ātir qarār, "Larūngā, jo chal āwenge lak suwār."

> Dılāsā dīyā, aur kahāyā salām, Dīyā <u>kh</u>ūb rahne koņ, <u>kh</u>āşā maqām. Mubārik terā naņwņ tūjh par achho!

- 700 Yah nīyat terā tūjh rahbar achho! Shujā'at ke ţaure men tūn mard hai, Bahādur, shujā', ṣāḥib-i-dard hai, Marātib son mardī ke hai be nazīr, Muhammad se nit ūchho dastgīr!
- 705 Jo bolā bachan so rakhā bar qarār, Achho shāh mardān kā tis din adhār, Dū jag mon natījah bada pāega. Dunya sahal har, nā tūn rah jāegā. Hū,ā ba'd-az-ān ghul Hındūstān mon,
- 710 Hūwā jang Mughal ur Miyan Khan son,

Shahādat kare Khān tam ikhtiyār, Kare maghfarat Khān kon Parwardıgār! Hū,ī jab khabar jā yah Nawāb kon, Rısālat ke mimbar kī mıhrāb kon,

- 715 Kih 'Ālim 'Alī, Sayyad bā-khair, Kīyā 'ālame manavī par safar, Sūnā ur parā gham ke jā āg moņ, So 'Ālim 'Alī Khān ke bairāg moņ. Kahā: "Khod dārūn Dakhin kī zamīn,
- 720 "Yah kyā bāt hamanā pah āwe kamīn,
  "Ba ḥaqq-i-Khudāwaud-i-gun-o-makān
  "Nah Mughalān kon chhodūn nah Mughale kā nān."

Mangā top<u>kh</u>īnā bade dāb kā, Bangālā, Pūrab, aur Panjāb kā,

- 725 Mangāe kahak bān sabh Hind ke,
  Dilī, Āgare, aur Sahrind ke,
  Jazāīl, shutarnāl, ka,e hazār;
  Kī,e ṣār dho-dhā-ke sabh ko tayār,
  Ghdārān kī,e sabh kon bānāt ke,
- 730 Surkh, sabz, aur zard ke bhānt ke.

  Hazārān jawān-mard, shamsher-zan,

  Mile ā-ke Bārhe son, sat de watan,

  Līyā sāth alishām chauņsath hazār,

  Apas the shujā at mon ik nāmdār.
- 735 Uthe bol: "Agar hai mere tan mon jān,
  "Lagā kar Lankā lag karūngā ūdān."
  Kahā jazab son: "Ai Khudāwandigār!
  "Nizāmān son mujh ko milā ek bār!
  "Agar mujh-ko dushman merā pāe to,
- 740 "Nikal jāwen, jo sāmhne ā,e to."

"Make yourself easy, set your heart firmly,
"Fight I will, should thousands of horsemen arrive."

He reassured her, sent his compliments,
He made over to her excellent quarters.
Fortunate be thy name to thee!
May this thy purpose lead thee aright!
In the ranks of the brave you are a true man,
Valorous, bold, of compassionate heart,
In the ranks of the valiant unequalled,
May Muhammad ever protect thee!
The word he had spoken he acted up to,
On the day when salvation is granted to brave men,
In both worlds he will obtain great reward.
This world is an illusion, nor shalt thou endure.
After this began an outcry in Hindūstān,
There had been fighting between the Mughal and
the Miyān,

The Khān had elected for martyrdom,
May the Cherisher give the Khān pardon of sins!
When this report was brought to the Nawāb,
This chief place in the pulpit of religious effort,
That 'Ālim 'Alī, the Sayyad of lucky fate,
Had journeyed to the Eternal Mansions,
He heard, and with grief was set on fire
At being separated from 'Ālim 'Alī.
He said: "I will dig up all the Dakhin lands,
"What thing is this done to me in ambush,
"I swear by the Ruler of Heaven and Earth

"Not one Mughal, nor shall any Mughal's name be left."

He sent for artillery of the heaviest calibre,
From Bengal and the East and the Panjāb,
Sent for the screeching rockets of all Hind,
From Dilli and Agrah and Sahrind,
Of wall-pieces, camel-guns, many thousands;
They were cleaned and washed out, all made ready,
For all he made covers of broad cloth,
Scarlet, green, and yellow-coloured.
Thousands of strong fighters, wielders of swords,
Came and joined the Bārha, leaving their homes,
Bringing a gathering of sixty-four thousand,
Among themselves one and all renowned for
valour.

He spoke aloud: "If life be left in my body
"I will work down to Lankā and give it as a gift."
He said with rage: "O Lord Most High!
"Bring me but once in face of the Niger."

- "Bring me but once in face of the Nizām!
- "If ever my enemy should be found by me,
- "He will be wiped out, should he confront me."

to a Rishi called Kharoshtha. The name is certainly not flattering, but there are analogies among the names of saints.<sup>2</sup> On the other hand, European savants have made ingenious comparisons to Kharoshtra, particularly with such names as Zardusht, Zarathushtra.<sup>3</sup>

Other information, also of Chinese origin, seems to open up fresh theories as to the source of the name Kharōshthī. This is independent of the schools of the Siddham, where the Sanskrit characters were studied with regard to their mystic value. It is not offered in support of any theory, but as [247] an independent fact, so that critics may accept it without any doubt as to its honesty and correctness.

I borrow from the Sin-yi Ta-fang-kuang Fo-hua-yen-king yin-yi of Huei-yuan. This is one of the texts, which have fortunately been preserved in the Corean collection, and which, in the excellent Japanese edition of the Tripitaka, are now at the service of science. The author, Huei-yuan, according to the catalogue, lived under the T'ang Dynasty. The biographical dictionary of celebrated monks, which I brought from Japan, confounds him with the priest Hiuan-yuan, also called Fa-yuan and Huei-yuan, whose biography may be found in the Siu-kao-seng-ch'oan, ch. xxviii.; but this priest flourished in the Cheng-kuan period (627-649) and lived in the Monastery of P'u-kuang, whilst the author of the Yin-yi resided at the Monastery of Tsing-fa; besides, the Yin-yi is, as its complete title indicates, an explanation of the difficult words of "the new translation of the Avatamsakasūtra," by Sikshānanda, 695-699. The work cannot be earlier than the 8th century.

In the 45th chapter of the new translation of the Avatamsaka (Jap. ed. I. fasc. 3, p. 22b), which corresponds to the 29th chapter (Jap. ed. I. fasc. 8, p. 46b) of the old translation by the Indian monk Buddhabhadra, of the family of the Sakyas (between 399 and 421), the Buddha enumerates the localities predestined to serve for all time as residences for the Bodhisattvas, and the Bodhisattvas destined for all time to preach the law in each of these localities.

The list opens with a series of imaginary mountains, situated at the cardinal points, at the intermediate points, and also in the sea; then comes the real world.

To the South of Pi-che-li (Vaiśālī) is a place called Good Resting-place (Susthāna ?); from earliest antiquity the Bōdhisattvas live there.

In the town of Pa-lien-fu (Pātaliputra) is a place named the Seng-kia-lan of the Lamp of Gold (Suvarṇa-dīpa-saṃghārāma); from earliest antiquity, &c.<sup>5</sup>

In the town of Mo-t'u-lo (Mathurā; Buddhabhadra writes Mo-yu-lo: Mayūra) is a place named the Grotto of Abundance (Man-tsu-k'u; Buddhabhadra says: "the Merit of the Upkeep which yields Increase," Ch'ang-yung-kong-to); from earliest, &c.

In the town of Kiu-chen-na (Buddh.: Kiu-chen-na-ya, Kuṇḍna) is a place named the Seat of the Law (Dharmāsana); from earliest, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Bühler, Wiener Zeitschr. f. d. Kunde des Morg. Bd. IX, S. 66. <sup>3</sup> Cf. Weber, Ind. Streifen, Bd. III., S. 8-9. <sup>4</sup> M. Lévi has here added a note, as follows — I have since ascertained that the edition of the Ming contains still another recension of the same work, it is entered under No. 1603 in Nan; 10's Catalogue. The author's name, written Hwui-wān by Nanjio, figures in Appendix III. of the same Catalogue, under No. 32 · "Hwui-wān, a priest who in about A. D. 700 compiled 1 work, viz., No. 1306" The Sung-kao-seng ch'oan, compiled in A. D. 988, gives a biographical notice of that person (Japanese ed XXXV 4, 94°): it does not contain any precise date; but it is inserted between two biographies, of which one refers itself to A. D. 766 and the other to A. D. 762. We might thus be tempted to place Huei-yuan about that same period. But he is certainly earlier, because his name and his book are mentioned in the K'ai-yuen shi-kiao lu (Japanese ed. XXVIII 4, 83°), a catalogue compiled in A. D. 730. Huei-yuan is there shewn after I-tsing and Bödhiruchi, — of whom the former died in A. D. 713 and the latter in A. D. 727, — and immediately before Tche-yen and Vajrabödhi, of whom the former began to translate in A. D. 721 and the latter in A. D. 723. Huei-yuan, then, composed his work in the first quarter of the eighth century.

In the town of *Tsing-tsing-pei-ngan* (Pure-Pure this border?) is a place named the Grotto (Buddhabhadra says: "the Merit")<sup>6</sup> of *Mu-che-lin-to* (Muchilinda); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Mo-lan-to (?; Buddhabhadra says: in the Land of the Wind) is a place named the Institution of the King of the Dragons without Obstacle (apratigha); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Kan-pu-che (Kambōja) is a place [248] named Supreme Benevolence (Uttama-maitrī?); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Chen-t'an (Chīna-sthāna) is a place named the Grotto of Na-lo-yen (Buddhabhadra writes: the Mountain of Na-lo-yen: Nārāyaṇa-parvata); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Shu-le (Buddhabhadra says: of the Neighbouring Barbarians: Pien-yi) is a place named Head of the Cow (Gōśīrsha); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Kia-she-mi-lo (Kāśmīra; Buddhabhadra: of Ki-pin) is a place named the Series (Buddhabhadra: the Mountain Wu-ti-shi, Uddēśa): from earliest, &c.

In the town of Intense Joy (Buddhabhadra: Nan-ti-po-tan-na, Nandipattana) is a lake named the Grotto of the Honourable (Buddhabhadra: Ti-lo-feu-ho); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Ngan-feu-li-mo is a place named the Splendour of a Hundred-thousand Treasures (Yi-tsang-kuang-ming; Buddhabhadra says: Straight and Oblique); from earliest, &c.

In the kingdom of Kien-t'o-lo (Gandhāra) is a place named the Grotto of Shen-po-lo (Jambhala; Buddhabhadra says: of the Pure Retreat); from earliest, &c.7

Huei-yuan's Yin-yi gives very few comments on this passage: among so many interesting names, he glosses only: Vaiśālī, Mathurā, Kuṇḍina, Chīna, Nārāyaṇa, Shu-le, Ngan-feu-li-mo, and Gandhāra. We learn nothing from him, except with regard to Shu-le. "The correct form," he says, "of the name Shu-le is K'ia-lu-shu-tan-le." We have for a long time accepted the abbreviated Shu-le: and it has become customary to substitute the sound shū for the sound shú." This is the name of a mountain of this kingdom, whence it is derived. It is said also to mean 'Evil Nature,' and to refer to the temperament of the inhabitants."

This gloss is found word for word in the commentary on the Avatańsaka-sūtra, composed at the end of the 8th century by Ch'eng-kuan, the fourth patriarch of the Avatańsaka school, who died at over seventy years of age, between 806 and 820. He has copied his predecessor's work, without the slightest alteration, in the 47th chapter of his commentary, the Ta-fang-kuang Fo-hua-yen-king-shu (Nanjio, No. 1589; Jap. ed. XXVIII. fasc. 4, p. 8b). In his enormous sub-commentary to the

In this list Khotan (Yu-t'ien) replaces Kashgar (Shu-le); but this last town is mentioned a little further on, in another exposition.

The Chinese translation of the Surya-garbha-sutra has for its author Narendrayasas, and for its date between A. D. 589 and 618.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> In this as in the preceding case Buddhabhadra seems to have read the last term of the phrase guna, whereas  $\hat{S}ikshananda$  read guha.

M. Lévi has here added a note, as follows: — I have found another list, analogous and almost parallel, in the collection entitled Mahā-samnipāta-sūtra (Ta-tsi king; Japanese ed. III. 3, 52-53), a section of the Sūrya-garbha-sūtra: —

At Vaiśālī is the residence of the holy man Shen-chou (good-stay) meu-ni (muni); . . . in Magadha, that of the holy man Pi-pu-lo peng-kia meu-ni (? Vipulāpānga muni); . . . at Mathurā, that of the holy man Ngai-yu-yen (loves-mist-fire); . . . in Kōsala, that of the holy man She-ye sheou-t'o meu-ni (? Jayaśuddha muni); . . . at Su-po-la-ka-sa-che-meu-chi-lin-to-lo (sic: Supāraka [Sōpāra; evidently corresponds to Tsing-tsing pei-ngan, 'pure bank,' su-pāra]) sacha (?) Muchilinda that of the holy man Hiang (perfume); . . . in Gandhāra, that of the holy man Ta-li-she-na jou-mo-lo meu-ni (Darśanajñāmala muni); . . . in Kipin (Kapiśa or Kāśmīra), that of the holy man Kong-[kong-]mo-ni-k'ia meu-ni (? Kunkuma . muni); . . . in Ngan-feu-li-mo, that of the holy man Yi-ts'ang-yen meu-ni (myriad-depot-fiame); . . . in Chen-t'an, that of the holy man Na-lo-ye-na fo-lo-po-so meu-ni (Nārāyaṇa . . . muni); . . . at Yu-t'ien [Khotan], on the mountainous bluff of the river near the mountain Mau-t'eu (cow-head; Gōśīrsha), that of the holy man Kiu-mo-po-(or so-)lo hiang (? Gōma-sāra-gandha).

<sup>\*</sup> The text of the Japanese edition presents by mistake yi for k'ia; but a comparison with following texts allows us to restore k'ia with confidence.

Sūtra, the Ta-fang . . . shu-yen-yi-ch'ao (Nanjio, No. 1590; Jap. ed. XXVII. fasc. 9, p. 84°, chap. 77) he again speaks of Shu-le and K'ia-lu-shu-tan-le as being equivalent. The same gloss on the name Shu-le, à propos of the same passage, is found in the excellent Yi-tsie-king yin-yi (chap. 22) of Huei-lin, a contemporary of Ch'eng-kuan, who also died in the Yuan-ho period (806-820), aged eighty-four years; this colossal compilation, which was not included in the Chinese canon, forms part of the Corean collection, and it is again to the editors of the Japanese Tripitaka that Western science owes this precious document. Huei-lin was a native of Kashgar; it was there, [249] without doubt, that he acquired the knowledge of Sanskrit, which he has utilised in his Yin-yi; in identifying Shu-le and Kia-lu-shu-tan-le, and in tracing the traditional interpretation of the name, he seems to recognize and prove the value of it (Jap. ed. XXXIX. fasc. 8, p. 144°).

Hi-lin, author of the Siu-yi-tsi-king yin-yi, who continued Huei-lin's work, repeats exactly the notice of his predecessor, with regard to Shu-le, in the itinerary of Wu-k'ong (Jap. ed. XXXIX. fasc. 8, p. 11<sup>a</sup>). I do not know the precise date of Hi-lin, but it can easily be inferred. Hi-lin represents his work as a supplement to the Yin-yi of Huei-lin, and the last of the texts which he glosses is the Ta-t'ang cheng-yuan siu k'ai-yuan she-kiao lu or Supplementary Catalogue edited by Yuan-chao who flourished in 778. The Siu . . . . yin-yi of Hi-lin therefore belongs to the first half of the 9th century, and is immediately posterior to the Yin-yi of Huei-lin.

Thus the identity of Shu-le and K'ia-lu-shu-tan-le was accepted and taught in the Buddhist schools of China, during the 9th century. The transcription K'ia-lu-shu-tan-le leads directly back to an original Kharōshtra. The use of shu in this case exactly corresponds to the only example which Stan. Julien gives in his Méthode (No. 1622). In the transcription "Pushpa: Pu-shu-pa," as in that of "Kharōshtra, K'ia-lu-shu-tan-le," shu serves to represent the cerebral sibilant immediately followed by a consonant, and placed after a syllable with a labial vowel: u in the one case,  $\bar{o}$  (=a+u) in the other.

The value of Shu-le itself is well known. It is the name which has been regularly employed since the time of the first Han Dynasty to denote the town of Kashgar. The Kharoshtra is therefore the country of Kashgar, and the Kharoshtra is very probably the writing of this country.

A few years ago this hypothesis would have seemed a very rash one. In his Indische Palaeographie, 1896, p. 19, Bühler wrote: "The Kharöshṭrī, as at present known, is an ephemeral "alphabet, almost purely epigraphic, of the North-West of India. Its proper domain lies between "69° and 73° 30′ E. long. and 33°—35° N. lat." The Kharöshṭrī manuscript of the Dhammapada, discovered in the environs of Khotan, and acquired partly by the mission of Dutreuil de Rhins, partly by M. Petrovski, at once confuted these two assertions; the Kharöshṭrī was a writing of scribes and copyists, and was employed, exactly as the Brāhmī was, to reproduce literary or religious texts; and the limits of its domain extended at one leap to 77° E. long. and 37° N. lat. The districts of Khotan and Kashgar have continued ever since then to supply new documents. In a recent communication, M. Stein, who has explored the region of Takla Makan, announced that, on the old banks of the Niya River, 37° N. lat. and 82° 20′ E. long., he had found five hundred inscriptions on tablets of wood in Kharōshṭrī characters. It appears more and more evident that the Kharōshṭrī was the writing of Central Asia, [250] of the country of Kharōshṭra. Henceforth it would be wise to abandon the incorrect form Kharōshṭrī and to return to the authentic form Kharōshṭrī, set aside by mistake.

Can this name Kharōshṭra be explained? The Chinese interpretation, which renders it "evilnature," recalls the interpretation of the name Ki-pin, also supplied by Chinese tradition. Ki-pin would signify "miserable race." On all sides there is the same tendency to give a contemptuous etymology to names of barbarian countries. The name Kapiśā naturally evoked the Sanskrit kapiśa, "monkey colour," and kapi "monkey": the temptation to apply such an etymology to barbarians was too grateful to be resisted. Kharōshtra could also be analysed in Sanskrit: khara, "ass," + ushtra, "camel." The facetious monks, who came from India, would spread this false etymology, and the

Chinese admitted that the name of the country was explained by "the natural perverse temperament of the inhabitants."

The first term indeed of the name may be "Kara," which enters into the composition of so many geographical names in Turki countries. From this point of view it may be interesting to notice that according to the Sūrya-garbha-sūtra (Je-tsang-king; Nanjio, No. 62; Jap. ed. III. fasc. 3, p. 53a) the name of Khotan (Yu-t'ven) under Kāśyapa Buddha, — that is to say the most ancient known name of Khotan, — was Kia-lo-sha-mo, where the element Kara again seems to appear. Because of its singular assonance, I again recall the name of the Prince Royal "Kharaosta Yuvaraja," son of Mahachhatrava Rajula, and brother of Chhatrava Sudasa, whose name is on the famous lion-pillar of Mathurā. Is it possible that the name of this Yuvarāja is a souvenir of the origin of this family with foreign names, which, coming into the heart of India with the Scythian conquest, was elevated to the dignity of Satraps?

The name of the country, Kharōshṭra, met with in the Chinese texts, sheds an unexpected light on a long description by Ktesias. The résumé of the Greek Doctor, incorporated in the Bibliotheca of Photius, gives a long description of the singularities of an Indian population called the Kalystrior, which is equivalent to the Greek Kynokephaloi, otherwise the "Dog-heads." The Kalystrioi live in the mountains, in which the Hyparkhos (or Hypobares) has its source. This river flows from the north to the Eastern Ocean; its name means "the bearer of all good things" (pherôn panta ta agatha). The form and the meaning recall the Suvāstu of Sanskrit geography, designated by the pilgrim Hiuan-tsang by the name Subhavastu (sic) which becomes the Svât of modern geography. Buddhist tradition places the abode of the Nāga Apalāla, one of the most popular and important of the Nāgas, at the source of the Svāt. The Eastern Ocean, which receives the waters of the Hyparkhos, means for Ktesias nothing more definite than the seas to the east of Persia. Whether we have to do with the Svāt or another stream, the country of the Kalystrioi is to be found in the Hindu Kush, as their mountains "extend to the Indus." The Greek Kalystrioi leads directly to a [251] Sanskrit Kalushṭra; from Kalushṭra to Kharōshṭra the path is too simple for us to refuse to accept it, especially when one considers the route that this name must have traversed to reach Ktesias.

Greek tradition, it is true, does not take any notice of the real or supposed elements in the Sanskrit word Kharoshtra; but the Chinese interpretation on the other hand is not more literal. The generic parentage of the two glosses is evident. "Dog-heads" or "evil-natures" indicate the disagreeable tendency to depreciate one's neighbour; the "natural coarseness" which the Chinese commentators lay to the credit of the Kharoshtras to justify their name, is a counterpart of the wild roughness of the Kalystrici of Ktesias. But there is no need to search far from the country of the Kalystrioi or Kharoshtras to meet "Dog-heads" in the classic geography of India. The astronomer Varāha-Mihira (6th century), in his description of India (Brihat-Samhitā, xvi. 28), places the Turagananas, "Horse-faces," and the Svamukhas, "Dog-heads," in the North, in the region of the Himālayas, between Trigarta (Jalandhar) and Takshasilā (the town of Taxilēs). These two peoples are found together in a modern work, derived from an original Persian, the  $Rar{o}$ makasiddh $ar{a}$ nta (Cat. MSS. Oxon. 340s, 16); after them come the Kimnara-mukhas, "Kimnara-faced," other monsters with horse-heads who are usually placed on the borders of China. Lastly, the "Dog-heads" are again mentioned in a long list of populations of Central Asia which I intend to publish shortly; there, also, they are classed near the "Horse-headed," between the people of Khotan and Nepal, that is, in the Tibetan Himālayas. The Tibetan populations have exactly the traits of the Kalystrioi mentioned by Ktesias: mountaineers, hunters, eaters of meat, herdsmen, rich in sheep, above all dirty, with a dirtiness which is rendered still more striking by contrast with the regular and frequent ablutions of the Hindus. Their physiognomy, and their harsh language, bristling with monosyllables, also correspond with the description of the Kalystrioi.

Separated by an interval of a thousand years, the Greek and the Chinese evidence by their agreement show that the name Kharōshṭra was used, from the 5th century B. C., to denote the

barbarian peoples, Turks or Tibetans, who lived on the North-North-West confines of India, scattered among the Hindu Kush and the Himālayas, and on the slopes of the Pamirs. Having thus established the antiquity of the term, the antiquity of the name applied to the writing would seem to follow: the Kharōshtrī must have received this name at a time when the name of Kharōshtra was in ordinary use. Ktesias' passage proves that this name was known in the Iranian world, in the Persia of the Achemenides, four hundred years before the Christian era.

I think it will be useful to reproduce the notice of Ktesias here. The precise and natural details, while contrasting advantageously with his usual love for the marvellous and fabulous, are a warrant of the truthfulness of his evidence as to the *Kalystrioi*, which is not to be despised:—

[252] (20) "On these mountains, he writes, live men having the heads of dogs, wearing the skins of wild beasts, and using no articulate language; they communicate with each other by barking hike dogs. Their teeth are larger than the teeth of dogs, and their claws resemble those of dogs, but are larger and rounder. They live in the mountains, and are found as far as the Indus. They are swarthy, and, like all other Indians, very erect. They can communicate with the Indians, for, though they cannot answer in words, they understand what they say; and by barking, and making signs with their heads and fingers, like deaf-mutes, they make themselves understood. The Indians call them Kalystrioi, which means in Greek Kynokephaloi (that is, "Dog-headed"). They live on raw meat. The whole tribe includes no less than 120,000 men."

- (22) "The Kynokephaloi, dwelling in the mountains, practise no art, and live on the products of the chase. They kill their prey, and roast the flesh in the sun. But they rear sheep, goats, and asses, in great numbers. They drink the milk of sheep, and the whey which is made from it. They eat also the sweet fruit of the siptakhora, the tree which produces amber. They dry this fruit, and pack it in baskets, as the Greeks do the grape. They construct boats, load them with baskets, as well as with the blossoms of the purple flower, after having cleaned it, and with a weight of 260 talents of amber and an equal weight of the pigment which dyes purple, and 1,000 talents more of amber. They send all this cargo, which is the product of the season, annually, as tribute to the King of the Indians. They also take quantities of these same products to sell to the Indians, from whom they receive in exchange, bread, flour, and material made from a substance which grows on a tree (cotton). They sell swords similar to those which they use for hunting wild beasts, also bows and javelins, in the use of which they are expert. They cannot be conquered, owing to their mountains being rugged and without roads; the king also sends them, once in six years, as presents, 300,000 arrows, as well as javelins, 120,000 shields and 50,000 swords."
- (23) "These Kynokephaloi have no houses, but live in caves. They hunt wild animals with the bow and boar-spear, and run so quickly that they can catch them. Their women bathe only once a month, at their periods. The men do not bathe at all, but simply wash their hands. Three times a month, however, they anoint themselves with an oil which they extract from milk, and dry themselves with skins. Dressed skins are the costume of the men and women. Rich men, however, who are few, wear cotton clothing. They have no beds, and sleep on litters of straw and leaves. Sheep constitute the only wealth, and the richest man is he [253] who possesses the greatest number of them. The men and women have a tail behind like dogs, but it is larger and more hairy. They copulate like quadrupeds, after the manner of dogs, and any other mode is considered shameful. They are erect, and live longer than any other men, attaining the age of 170 and sometimes of 200 years." Cf. also fragm. XXI. (Tzetzes, Chil. vii., v., 716); XXII. (Pliny, Hist. Nat. vii. 2); XXIII. (Ælian, iv. 46).

 <sup>[</sup>See, also, Ind. Ant. Vol. X., 1881, p. 310 ff.]

## SOME ANGLO-INDIAN TERMS FROM A XVIITH CENTURY MS.

# BY SIR RICHARD C. TEMPLE, BART.

# (Continued from Vol. XXXII. p. 470.)

#### GUDGE.

Fol. 94. They measure timber, planke brick or Stone walls, Callicoes, Silks &c pr the Guz: each Guz doth containe 27 inches.

See Yule, s. v. Gudge, with hardly any quotations.

#### GUN DA.

Fol. 94. One Gunda is 4 Cowries. . . 5 Gundas is one burrie or 20: Cowries.

Not in Yule. [Vide ante, Vol. XXVII. p. 171 ff., for the system of counting by gandas or quartettes. See also Vol. XXVII. p. 266.]

#### GUNJA.

Fol. 39. but they find means to be soft themselves Enough with Bangha and Gangah.

Fol. 40. Gangah is brought from y? Island Sumatra and is oftentimes Sold here [Metchlipatam] at Very high rates. It is a thinge y? resembleth hemp Seed and groweth after y? same mannar... Gangah beinge of a more pleasant Operation... They Study many ways to Vse it, but not One of them y? faileth to intoxicate them to admiration.

See Yule, s. v. Gunja, who, however, gives no history of the word.

## HALALCORE.

Fol. 8. See that this very party is a most Scandalous person and accompted but a Hololcore untill he hath regained his cast.

See Yule, s. v. Halalcore: a very low-caste man, a "sweeper," scavenger.

#### HARSAPORE.

Fol. 59. from Point Conjaguaree to Palmeris y. River is called Haraspoore.

Not in Yule: a very early Factory and the first landing-place of the English in the Bay of Bengal: but see Yule, s. v. Factory, where he gives it doubtfully as Arzapore, on the Eastern or Coromandel Coast. [There is, however, no doubt about it: Haraspur or Harsapur was perhaps the earliest Factory in the "Bay": earlier even than Balasor and Pipli. See Wilson, Early Annals of Bengal, Vol. I. p. 1 ff. The quotation above is very valuable.]

#### HAUT.

Fol. 94. They measure . . . . Callicoes, Silks &c . . . . by y. Covet we cont 18 inches and is called hawt.

See Yule, s. v. Haut, who gives, however, no quotations.

### HINDOSTAN.

Fol. 25. Naiques (for soe ye Hindoo Governours are Entitled).

Fol. 59. Severall Radjas who before (ye Mahometan Conquest of ye Hindoos) possessed this Kingdome.

Fol. 71. always kept in his Court Sharpe witted fellows, y made it theire businesse to prye into y Estates of y Hindoo Merchants.

See Yule, s. v. Hindoo.

## HINDOSTAN.

Fol. 61. Bengala: It is one of ye largest and most Potent Kingdoms of Hindostan . . . . Chah Jehan (then Emperour of Hindostan . . . . The great Emperour of Hindostan . . . . In the Throne of ye Vast Empire (of Hindostan).

- Fol. 62. weh Soon after caused bloody Civil warrs in Hindostan.
- Fol. 63. Moh-barock-bad, Hazarot, Salamet, El-hamd-ul-ellah, viz! God Save your Majestie, you have Obtained the Victorie, why Stay y! longer Upon your Elephant, in y! name of God come downe, he hath made y! the great Kinge of Hindostan [!!].
  - Fol. 77. The Elephants of Ceylone are best Esteemed here and all Hindostan over.
- Fol. 84. Most Mahometans &c: of accompt in Hindostan Vse them [Gonges] at theire doors in y. Street where they have generally a Porch built... The English and Dutch have them at y. Gates of all there juland flactories: in this Kingdome and Others in Hindostan: Verificing y. Old Proverbe: Cum fueris Romæ, &c:
- Fol. 97. Pattana: A Very large and potent Kingdome, but longe Since become tributarie to  $y_i^e$  Emperours of Hindostan (or great Mogol).
- See Yule, s. v. Hindostan. [Yule's earliest quotation in the restricted sense of the text is 1803.]

# HINDOSTANEE.

- Fol. 35. y? Hindostan ore Moors Languadge.
- Fol. 41. fancyinge himselfe to be at ye Gates of the Pallace at Agra, Singeinge to that purpose in ye Hindostan Languadge.

See Yule, s. v. Hindostanee.

# HOBSON-JOBSON.

Fol. 54. Of a great Giant called Jansa Bainsa. . . . . They place him in a great Chaire made for ye Same purpose runninge Vpon 4 Wheels for ye Easier drawinge of him through ye towne, he is called Iansa Bainsah: made of pasteboard leather &c: Stuffed wth Straw and Other Combustible ingredients; covered wth blew cloth, his head and face painted with Redd and White, Severall Resbutes and Others danceinge Round him with great drawne Swords, after ye manner of fenceinge, callinge Vpon him by his Name, wth many torches flaggs, Pipes and drums, and in this Posture he is drawne through the Principall Streets of ye towne [Golcondah], They burne him to dust in the Open Street about ye 12th houre in ye night.

See Yule, s. v. Hobson-Jobson. [There is, however, a doubt as to the ceremony in the text relating really to the much corrupted ceremony of the Muharram, though it might well be so.]

## HOOGLY.

- Fol. 73. he wold Every yeare Send downe to y? Merchants in Hugly.
- Fol. 74. One of ye most admirable of we arms [of the Ganges] is ye Hugly river.... This River is soe named from ye great towne of Hugly Scituated Vpon ye banks of it neare 150 miles up from ye Braces or Shoals that lye at ye Entrance thereof.... The English ffactory here in Hugly is ye head or Chiefe ffactory in the 3 beforementioned Kingdoms and the residence of ye Chiefe in Place.
- Fol. 75. in ye very place where ye Dutch ffactory stood wee ride with our Ships and Vessels in noe lesse then depth 16 fathoms and it is called **Hugly hole**.

See Yule, s. v. Hoogly. [The quotations are valuable, and the Hugly Hole, though it exists, is not mentioned in Yule.]

## HOOKA.

- Fol. 45. Often Smoakeinge their Hoocars as they call [them] of tobacco.
- Fol. 46. Hoocar or hubble-bubble.
- See Yule, s. v. Hooka, where earliest quotation is, however, 1768.

#### HOOLAK.

- Fol. 77. My Purser M. Clem! Jordan was just then come downe with a Small Olocko.
- Fol. 99. This is called an Olocko: they row Some wth 4: Some wth 6 Owers and ply for a faire as wherries doe in yth Thames.

See Yule, s. v. Woolock.

#### HUBBLE-BUBBLE.

Fol. 46. Hoocars: commonly called hubble-bubble.

See Yule, s. v. Hubble-bubble. See ante, Vol. XXIX. p. 60.

## JACKAL.

Fol. 96. Infinite Number of Wild hogge in this countrey as also a creature called a Jackall, resemblinge both dogge and fox, and are as large as good ordinary hounds in England.

See Yule, s. v. Jackal.

## JAGGERY.

Fol. 40. another Sort from your Jagaree or Very Course Sugar. See Yule, s. v. Jaggery.

### JAFNA.

Fol. 77. They are bought [in Ceylone] from ye Dutch . . . in Gala or Colomba or Japh-napatam.

See Yule, s. v. Jafna, in the north of Ceylon. [Yule's quotations stop at 1566. N. and E. p. 47, has Japnapatam, for 1680.]

## JAMBEE.

Fol. 159. There are Severall Radjas Vpon Sumatra . . . Especially those of Iambee.

Not in Yule. [Jambi is a Malay State on the North-East of Sumatra.]

### JAN PERDO.

Fol. 76. now beinge got into ye reach called Jn? Perdo.

Not in Yule. The Island "Jan Perdo" in the Hughly River has now disappeared. See Yule, Diary of William Hedges, Vol. III. p. 212 f.

#### JAVA.

- Fol. 97. Ye Elephant is not found wild there nor dare ye tame ones frequent the Woods [for fear of the Rhinocerots] As for instance Pattana: Bengala: & Iava Major.
- Fol. 157. Many Ships and Vessels doe . . . arrive in this Port [Achin] from . . . . . Iava Major.
- Fol. 159. This Citty (Achin) is ye fairest and most populous of any that Ever I saw or heard of that is inhabited by Malayars or Iavas.

See Yule, s. v. Java. [The use of the word for the people as well as the country is remarkable.]

JESSORE.

Fol. 73. he wold Every yeare Send down to ye Merchants in . . . Jessore.

Not in Yule. [A town in Lower Bengal, still well known under the same name and spelling.]

# JOHORE.

- Fol. 142. but doe rather wish they were Served soe in . . . Johore.
- Fol. 143. as in Achin Johor &c: Malay Countries.

Fol. 145. Hee hath always been a great peacemaker amonge ye Naighbouringe [to Queda] Kings Vizt Pattany & Johore.

Not in Yule. [A well-known Malay State in the neighbourhood of Singapore.]

## JUGGURNAUT.

- Fol. 4. these they often bow to in representation of their God Jn? Gernaet, beinge as he is Vpon Some festivals carried about in a large triumphant Chariot.
- Fol. 7. Of all ye false gods these jdolatrous people worship (save John Gernaet) a Cow is held in greatest reverence.
- Fol. 8. must take his travaile to ye great Pagod Jn? Gernaet: ye remotest part of ye Golcondah Kingdome North Eastwards from ffort S'! Georgs; neare 1000: English miles.
  - Fol. 9. In this theire Cathedral Pagod.
- Fol. 11. In that great and Sumptaous Diabolicall Pagod, there Standeth theire greatest God Jn? Gernaet, whence y? Pagod received its name alsoe.
- Fol. 12. to behold their graven God Jn? Gernaet . . . . In y. Middle of that great Diabolicall Chariot is placed theire great Patron Jn? Gernaet.
  - Fol. 13. he beinge very rich had Vowed to bestow liberaly on ye Pagod Jne Gernaet.

See Yule, s. v. Juggurnaut. [This is the most interesting variant I have come across of this much-corrupted name. The word is Jagan-nath, by metathesis such as is common in India, Janganath; hence, of course, John Gernaet. See ante, Vol. XXX. p. 352.]

#### JUNK.

Fol. 78. ye Danes: who might have ruined all theire fforaigne Commerce with their owne Ships or Junks.

· See Yule, s. v. Junk. See ante, Vol. XXX. p. 160.

#### JUNK-CEYLON.

- Fol. 131. Oedjange-Salange commonly called Janselone Is an Island that lyeth to the Southward of all the Jsles of Tanassaree; nearest middway betweene y! and Queda: y! North End of it lyeth in Latt! North 08! 50": y! South End in 07! 35": Latt! North. Jt is almost in y! forme of y! Island Ceylone but not more then a Sixth part see large.
- Fol. 131. The Saleeters are absolute Piratts, and often cruiseinge about Ianselone & Pullo Sambelon &c Jsles neare this Shore.
- Fol. 138. When I was in Ianselone, Employed by M. William Jearsey an Eminent English Merchant att flort s! Georges.
- Fol. 139. See longe as they were Vnder ye Radja of Janselone's protection . . . . killed two of ye Tanseloners.
  - Fol. 148. The tallest and best Sett Elephant yt ever I beheld was in Ianselone.
- See Yule, s. v. Junk-Ceylon, the European name for an Island off the West Coast of the Malay Peninsula. [The quotations are valuable as showing the origin of the name, which is a corruption of Ujang Salang, or Salang Head, the most prominent point on Salang, the real name of the Island.]

#### KIRMAN,

Fol. 97. Pattana . . . . . . is a Countrey of Very great Trafficke & Commerce . . . into most parts of Judia: Vizi from yo Northerne Kingdoms or Empires (by land) namely Persia: Carmania: Georgia: Tartaria: &c:

Not in Yule. [The portion of Persia nearest to India.]

#### KISTNA, RIVER.

Fol. 51. famous for ye River Kishna.

Not in Yule.

#### KITTYSOL.

Fol. 42. Sumbareros or Catysols, are here very Vsefull and necessarie for ye Same purpose, we are carried 3 or 4 foot or more above a mans head and Shade a great matter, beinge rather more Convenient then ye Other [roundel] but not soe fashionable or Honourable.

See Yule, s. v. Kittysol. [An umbrella, especially the Chinese variety of paper with a bamboo handle. See ante, Vol. XXX. p. 347.]

#### KORAN.

Fol. 45. The Alcoron web cont ye Scope of their preligious Religion . . . . . . [Ramazan] is Observed annually in Celebration of ye Alcoron.

Yule has no entry for Koran.

#### LAC.

Fol. 56. with infinite quantities of butter and Lacca.

Fol. 61. affordinge great plenty of . . . Lacca.

See Yule, s. v. Lac. [Crawford, Dict. of the Indian Archipel., s. v., says the term is used for a red-wood used in dyeing: and it may be important to note this for the history of the word in old writers.]

#### LACK.

Fol. 67. his revenue came to a lack Viz! 100000 rupees p! diem weh is 12 thousand 500 pounds Sterlinge....he Sent the Emperour 80 lacks of rupees.

Fol. 70. The Nabob (Smileinge Vpon him) demandeth wth all Speed one lack of rupees ie: 100000,

Fol. 71. now thought he had another Opportunitie fallen into his hand of acquireinge one lack or two of rup! . . . demanded noe lesse then 2 lack of Rupees as a present.

See Yule, s. v. Lack. [It is to be noted that about 1675 one lack = £12,500: nowadays it = £6650.]

#### LADAS, ISLANDS.

Fol. 149. Vpon an Island about 30 or 40 English miles in circuit called Pullo Ladda: viz! Pepper Jsland Pullo in y! Malay tongue Signifieth Jsland and Ladda pepper, it is 8 leags to y! NW: of Queda River's mouth.

Not in Yule.

#### LANDOCK.

Fol. 158. y. Diamonds of Landock (upon Borneo) are accompted y. best in y. World.

Not in Yule. [Landak is on the western side of Borneo.]

#### LAXIMANA.

Fol. 143. next to whom [the Sultan] are ye Leximana.

Fol. 161. y: Leximana the Lord Generall.

See Yule, s. v. Laximana: no quotation after 1553. [The word is usually translated by "admiral" in the old books.]

(To be continued.)

'My dear Chandrakântâ, my mother, O lotus-eyed, I am your best friend. If you have any secrets, you can freely communicate them to me. Does your husband obey your orders? The may of feminine life is ephemeral. So are time and place. Do you enjoy sexual happiness independently? If not, I shall put you in the way of your doing so.' The lady, hearing the poisoned horrible words of the woman, was overcome by shame and said, 'How dare you talk such trash before me with an If I do not reply to you, you will ruin me by spreading all sorts of fabricated rumours against me.' Thinking thus, and fearing the consequences of silence, she replied, 'The best period for copulation is from the fifth day after menstruation till the sixteenth, and my husband, well versed in srutis and smrtis, will cohabit with me during these twelve days, exclusive of the days unenjoined by law. We are enjoying temporal felicity as ordained by the śastras, and are paving the way for celestial bliss. The wise say that if conception is formed on a good day of copulation, the son that will issue forth from such an act, will be intelligent, live long, and be rich; while those born at other times will be short-lived and sickly, and will be a source of woe to the parents. The following days are excluded for copulation: the sixth, eighth, eleventh, twelfth, fourteenth, new moon, full moon, the passage of the sun into the various signs of the zodiac, the annual ceremony (śrúddha) days for parents, the star of birth, star by the name of Sravana, rrata period, morning, twilight, &c. During the abovementioned period, the person that shaves, copulates, anoints or cleans his teeth, though he be well versed in all the four Vedas, will assuredly become an outcaste. Thus have I briefly told you the ordinances enjoined for a grihasta (a family man)." To which Vidyavati, intent on bringing Chandrakantâ to her own level, replied, "O madcap, you have spoiled all your happiness. Hear my word, therefore. As this sickly coil is dear to all animate existences, why do you waste your flush of womanhood? Why not enjoy sexual happiness? In old age the constitution will be shattered by disordered breasts, and abstinence will bring on its attendant evils - premature old age and disease. You are practically unaware of the humbug of your husband. He is keeping himself engaged with the maid-servant from morn to night. You are too plain, unhyprocritical and pure-hearted, whereas your husband is a firebrand and pretends to be a good man externally. I heard too well of his misdeeds from an intimate prostitute-friend of mine. I have told you all this as I am a sharer in all your joys and sorrows." After hearing the sinful words of Vidyâvatî, Chandrakântâ said, "A husband is a god to women, be he a mischievous, hot-tempered, sickly, ireful, vile, pudding-headed fellow. Apart from the adoration of the husband, there are no observances or free-will offerings of any sort or kind enjoined by the Vedas. To those women who aspire after Svarga, a husband is the greatest of gods. The woman who abuses her lord will be born a dog." The vile wretch of a Vidyavatî, determined on outraging the chastity of Chandrakântâ, replied, "O mad fool! Have not Ûrvasî, Mênakâ, Rambhâ, Gritâchî, Punjikasthalâ and other angelic women acted independently and cohabited with innumerable hosts of men, and yet have been coveted by the greatest of Rishis, and but for all that remained happy? The wise, considering the ephemerality of this mortal coil, enjoy happiness, terrestrial and celestial. All must covet felicity. Who has seen heaven or hell? Whatever we actually enjoy is heaven. I am aware of the truth of happiness and misery. Independence is happiness. I became independent and rid myself of all fear by murdering my husband. The free man is the happiest being. He alone is filled with tapas. He alone is fortunate. Is there any happiness for a servile wretch?" With illustrations like these which would abuse the mind and make it as fickle as possible, with thoughts hard as adamant which would lead one to hell-gate in no time, with breasts resembling the frontal lobes of fattened elephants. Chandrakântâ set at naught all hereditary acharas and remained a prostitute in private for a month, owing to the strange irony of fate, feminine fickleness, mental unrest and a hankering after perceptible happiness, being overcome by the finely-pointed darts of Cupid. Then her lord found out by her questionable reputation, conduct in life, foul tongue, &c., that she was immoral, ejected her out of the house, was wonder-struck at what happened even to his wife, made gifts of cattle, money, grain, houses, &c., to the deserving, was sore dismayed for illicit intercourse with a prostitute-wife, and, as an expiation for the sin committed, went and reached the banks of the Kâvêrî.

# A COMPLETE VERBAL CROSS-INDEX TO YULE'S HOBSON-JOBSON OR GLOSSARY OF ANGLO-INDIAN WORDS.

## BY CHARLES PARTRIDGE, M.A.

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ann. 1753: s. v. Kedgeree, 364, ii, 812, ii; ann. 1767: s. v. Burrampooter, 101, ii, twice; ann. 1769: s. v. Hosbolhookhum, 807, ii; ann. 1770: s. v. Hindostan (a), 316, ii, s. v. Sett, 615, ii, s. v. Vedas, 735, ii; ann. 1782: s. v. Bandel, 760, ii; ann. 1784: s. v. Palankeen, 504, i; ann. 1792: s. v. Sunderbunds, 661, i; ann. 1793: s. v. Burrampooter, 102, i; ann. 1795: s. v. Pali, 505, ii; ann. 1809: s. v. Gavial, 800, ii; ann. 1826: s. v. Mussoola, 461, ii; ann. 1827: s. v. Juggurnaut, 357, i; ann. 1834: s. v. Siwalik (d), 642, i; ann. 1835: s. v. Siwalık, 642, ii; ann. 1840: s. v. Hummaul, 327, ii; ann. 1863: s. v. Swatch, 672, i. Gangetic; s. v. Hog-deer, 320, i, s. v. India. 331, ii, s. v. Jack, 338, i, s. v. Kythee, 380, ii, s. v. Mohwa, 439, ii, s. v. Monkey-bread Tree, 441, ii, s. v. Moonga, 444, ii, s. v. Moorpunky, 447, i, s. v. Patel, 519, ii, s. v. Sugar, 655, i, s. v. Teak, 692, ii, s. v. Gavial, 800, ii. Gangi chū; s. v. Prickly-pear, 554, i. Gangi sho; s. v. Prickly-pear, 554, i. Gangsa; s. v. Ganza, 278, i. Gangua; ann. 1538: s. v. Godavery, 291, i. Ganja; s. v. Majoon, 411, i. Gānja; ann. 1808: s. v. Kyfe, 380, ii. Ganjá; ann. 1874: s. v. Gunja, 308, i, twice. Ganjā; 838, i, footnote. Ganjam; s. v. Factory, 264, i, s.-v. Kling, 372, i. s. v. Mort-de-chien, 451, ii; ann. 1748: s. v. Cossid, 204, i. Ganjám; s. v. Circars, 170, ii. Gānjhā; s. v. Gunja, 308, i. Gans; ann. 1726: s. v. Ganza, 278, i. Gansa; ann. 1567: s. v. Ganza, 278, i. Ganse; ann. 1727: s. v. Ganza, 278, i. Ganta; ann. 1615: s. v. Ganton, 278, i. Ganta; s. v. Gong, 295, ii. Gantang; s. v. Ganton, 278, i. Ganton; s. v. 277, ii. Gantūr; s. v. Circars, 170, ii. Ganza; s. v. 278, i; ann. 1554 and 1567: s. v. 278, i; ann. 1568: s. v. Viss, 739, ii, twice. Ganze; ann. 1568: s. v. Porto Piqueno, 550, i. Gāon; s. v. Gaum, 279, ii.

Gāonwār; ann. 1519: s. v. Gaum, 279, ii.

Gaot; ann. 1673: s. v. Ghaut (c), 282, ii.

Gaou; s. v. Gow, 299, i; ann. 1860: s. v. Gow, 299, ii, 3 times. Gap: s. v. Gup, 308, ii. Garbantzua; s. v. Calavance, 110, ii. Garbanzos; s. v. Calavance, 110, ii. Garbin; s. v. Muggrabee, 826, ii. Garce; s. v. 278, i. s. v. Mercáll, 434, i; ann. 1759: s. v. 278, i; ann. 1784: s. v. 278, ii. Garcinia Gambogia: s. v. Corcopali, 196, ii and footnote. Garcinia indica; s. v. Corcopali, 196, ii, twice. Garcinia Mangostana; s. v. Mangosteen, 426, i. Garçon; s. v. Boy, 83, i. Garcopa; ann. 1726: s. v. Canara, 118, ii. Gardafui; ann. 1554: s. v. Jam, 810, i; ann. 1602: s. v. Guardafui, Cape, 305, ii. Gardee; s v. 278, ii, twice; ann. 1762: s. v. 278, ii; ann. 1786; s. v. Telinga, 695, i. Gardefan; ann. 1790: s. v. Guardafui, Cape, 305, ii. Gardefui; ann. 1790: s. v. Guardafui, Cape, 305, ii. Garden; ann. 1758, 1782 and 1873: s. v. Gardens, 279, i. Garden-house: s. v. 800, i, s. v. Gardens, 278, ii; ann. 1685: s. v. Gardens, 279, i; ann. 1758, 1772, 1809 and 1810: s. v. Gardens, 279, i. Garden House; ann. 1747: s. v. Garden-house, 800, i. Garden Reach; s. v. Gardens, 278, ii; ann. 1824: s. v. Compound, 188, ii. Gardens; s. v. 278, ii. Gard-Hafun; s. v. Guardafui, Cape, 305, i. Gardi; ann. 1786: s. v. Gardee, 278, ii; s. v. Telinga, 695, i. Garga; s. v. Goglet, 292, ii. Gargouille; s. v. Goglet, 292, ii. Gargoulette; s. v. Goglet, 292, ii; ann. 1610: s. v. Goglet, 292, ii. Garh; s. v. Gurjaut, 309, i. Garh; s. v. Gurry (a), 309, i. Garhī; s. v. Gurry (a), 309, i. Garhjāt; s. v. Gurjaut, 309, i. Garhjats; s. v. Gurjaut, 309, i. Garhwāl; s. v. Khāsya, 366. ii (twice), s. v. Orange, 490, i. Gari; ann. 1709: s. v. Ghurry, 285, i. Gāri; s. v. Garry, 279, i. Garial; ann. 1881: s. v. Muggur, 456, i.

## MISCELLANEA.

# FAMILY GODLINGS AS INDICATORS OF TRIBAL MIGRATIONS.

It is an accepted principle that local godlings were from time to time introduced to the family altar as divine fathers, mothers, protectors, or deified faithful servants. The following remarks show that family godlings may also indicate the migrations of the tribe to which the family belongs.

In one family of the Prabhus of Thana, near Bombay, there is a godling Martand alias Khandêrâv. He is shown riding a horse, and attended by a dog, his faithful companion, and represents the sun. Sir Thomas Wardle traces its seat in Kashmir.1 Another godling is Bhairav or Bahiri, also on horse-back (the Kâl-bhairav of Uijain); a third is Ekvîra of the Western Ghâts near Poona; a fourth, the Bapdev (from bap = father, and dev = god) of Cuddapa, on the slopes of the same mountain range at the southern end of what is known as the Madras Deccan, or that part of the Deccan plateau which is under the iurisdiction of the Madras Government; a fifth is a "group" of goddesses called the Parshik-karnis, or residents of the Parshik Hıll near Thâna, 21 miles from Bombay. There was besides one attendant sub-godling with a human body and equine head, which stood in front of the altar with folded hands, but is said to have been thrown into the sea by one of the ancestors of the family five generations ago, whose pâduka (foot-prints) are still placed before the altar on the Kuladharma day, once a year. The family is called Gupte, and belongs to the Chandraseni subdivision of the Prabhus.

As the name Guptê is derived from gup = acave, vale, or valley, or gup to protect, and pati, ruler or lord, the above facts seem to show that the Guptes came from some mountainous valley or were its protectors. They are Chândrasênî Prabhus, and this seems show that they came from the valley of the river Chandra,2 now known as the Chenab in the Punjab, the suffix sent being possibly derived from Sanskrit śreni, a clan, tribe.

The Guptes have, further, a tradition<sup>3</sup> that they were defeated and disarmed by the ubiquitous

conqueror Parasurâma, but Purusî is also a name of the river Ravt, and as the Chenab and the Ravi are both the affluents of the Indus, and form a duab or enclosed tract, it is more probable that the tradition preserves a recollection of the fact that the Ravs. or people of the Ravi Valley, and the Chandras, or people of the Chandra or Chenab Valley, lived in constant warfare, and that the latter were ultimately defeated and driven out. This conjecture is supported by the fact of the establishment of a Râmnagar on the banks of the latter, just as ' Alexandria' towns were established along the route of the great Greek conqueror. From the valley of the Chenab to that of the Gharia or Hyphasis, into which it flows, would be a natural line of flight. Thence southwards to the Abu mountains and the Chambal Valley was possibly a further progress, as these people have a tradition that their forefathers performed an asvamedha,5 or horse sacrifice, in that tract. Wandering along the Chambal Valley they may have established themselves at Ujjain on the Shhiprâ, where Vikramâditya, the last of the Guptas, established the Samvat Era. Here they would naturally have acquired, as a godling, Kâlbhairav,6 to whom they still make vows when taken ill, having shortened his name into Bhairay. In the Bhanpura District of the Indore State. there is a god Guptêśwar, and at Mândugadh, or fort of Måndu, in the Dhår State, there are traces of their ascendancy (vide Enthoven's Monograph). Further south at Mandalĉśwar, on the banks of the Narbada, there is another god Guptêśwar. Further wanderings southwards would seem to be marked by the godlings Ekvira and Martand of the Deccan, and the southernmost point of the migration by Bapdev, or father-god of Cuddapa. Then there seems to have been a return northwards towards Thâna or Thânêśwar, a name the wanderers carried in their heads from the great Thânêśwar temple of the north. The flourishing condition of Sopara,7 the Ophir of ancient trade as Sir James Campbell believes from the valuable relics he found there, followed by the more modern trade due to the connection of that coast with the Portuguese and the British, seems to have finally settled the Guptê clan in and near Bombay with one

<sup>1</sup> The Leek Post, Saturday, June 13, 1903. (Second letter from Sir Thomas Wardle.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Elliot's History, but there are many Chândrasênî Râjpûts.

<sup>8</sup> Vide Rênuhâ Mahâimya, Skandh-Purâna. 4 Hewitt's Ruhng Races of Prehistoric Times, p. 113. 5 Enthoven's Monograph on the Prabhus.

<sup>6</sup> It may be noted that Enthoven mentions Vınzâî, another mountain-mother of the Vindhyâchal, by which route a portion of the Prabhu tribe may have come to the Deccan via Benares, another eminent seat of Kalbhairav,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Sir J. Campbell's Sopara Relics.

offshoot at Mâval near Poona, and another at Damân, also on the Western coast. The Parshikkarnî goddesses were introduced within the memory of the oldest living representative of the clan. Thus, the father of the present head of the family was the son of a woman from a village at the foot of the Parshik Hill, and she induced him only 60 years ago to admit these goddesses, the family deities of her mother, a Pradhan, into that of her son, a Guptê, a resident of Thâna. only three miles from the hill.

These facts and speculations show that local godlings may supply valuable links of evidence when taken with the traditional history of a clan, and the results of British archæological researches in the East.

The horseman godling Mârtaṇḍ, worshipped with his horse and dog, recalls in this case the Turkish horsemen or cavalry mentioned at page 307 of Hewitt's Ruling Races of Prehistoric Times, and the ancient system carried on to quite modern times of buryings alive the servants and favourite animals of the chiefs, involving the deification of the animals so sacrificed, accompanied by their transformation into mythological beings, "half man, half beast," such as Garuda (the eagle), Hanuman (the monkey), and even Muhammad's mare.

The worship of the mother-mountain by the Northern Races is described at p. xxxii in Mr. Hewitt's preface, and thus the name Parshik as a sacred hill of the Prabhus, whence godlings come, may throw light on the history of the race. Parshik may possibly mean Persian, if Parsika be taken to mean" belonging to or occupied by the Persians." The Prabhus are fairer than the generality of the local residents. MacCrindle's Ancient India, p. 46, mentions the marriage of a Gupta chief with the Macedonian bride that Alexander gave him, and further possibility of the absorption of foreign blood on the coast is mentioned in Vol. II., p. 27, of Ratzel's History of Mankind. and "girl traffic" at p. 438 of Vol. I. The Macedonian colonies of Koh-Daman, and the existence of a Daman on the Western coast, with Davanê or Damnê Prabhus as its residents at the present day; the mention of the Prabhus among the pre-historic Ruling Races by Mr. Hewitt (p. 310); Dr. Hove's description of a "Parvoo"10 (misspelt for Prabhu) caste at Râjâpur, near Limri

in Gujarât; Ratzel's11 mention of bride-slaves as a favourite commodity, his description of their treatment as poor 12 relations; Hove's colony of "remarkably fair" slaves from 13 Mghilta (Mahikâ) at "Jahauna," only 5 days' voyage from Bombay: Mr. Edwardes' mention of "handsome young women of Hellas 14 destined to attend on the kings of the country and carry chauris in his court"; Ratzel's mention of "women15 as merchandise" and of "the tendency to accumulate it," as also his description of the desire for owning slaves as "insatiable";16 his mention of "women willing prizes of whoever can catch them"; Mr. Edwardes' description 17 of the early Jews who "brought (to Bombay) a living freight of women," and the existence of the Pârsîs in that locality, — taken with the name of the hill Parsik. may all indicate the infusion of Western blood into the more powerful of the Bombay coast tribes, including the Prabhus (lit., Lords, Masters), in the days when inter-marriages were freely allowed between different races, and the hard and fast rules of caste had not yet been conceived.

Again, coming from the Indo-Aryan tract in the North, under the name Chândrasênî, and perhaps marrying fair Western maids purchased at high prices, the Prabhus may have also acquired a tinge of the local Dravidian blood from Southern tracts like Cuddapa, and this would account for their forming a caste midway between the accepted types of the Indo-Aryan and Scytho-Dravidian races, and their present average cephalic index 79-9 (medium), average nasal index 75-8 (medium), and average orbito-nasal index 113-4, and also their "hereditary dexterity" 18 and intelligence. These qualities proved to be of value to Sivâjî, the founder of the Marâthâ Empire, as he found among the Prabhus a material at once literary, martial, and loyal, and made the best use of it So also has the British Government found in them a people, whom Sir James Campbell describes thus in his Thana and Poona volumes of the Bombay Gazetteer :-"As a class the men are middle-sized, and slightly built, fair with regular features and handsome, intelligent faces. Their women are refined and graceful. Sivajt on one occasion dismissed all the Brahmans, who held financial posts, and engaged (Chândrasênî) Prabhus in their places. In reply to the complaints of Môropant

<sup>8</sup> Dr. Hove's Tour in India in 1794, pages 166 and 167.

<sup>10</sup> Hewitt's Ruling Races, pp. 85 to 89.

<sup>12</sup> Ibid. Vol. I. p. 447. 18 Hove's Tour in India, p. 5.

<sup>15</sup> Ratzel's History of Mankind, Vol. I. p. 123.

<sup>17</sup> Town and Island of Bombay, p. 7.

<sup>9</sup> Pp. 38 and 39 of MacCrindle's Ancient India.

<sup>11</sup> Ratzel's History of Mankind, Vol. II. p. 98. 14 Town and Island of Bombay, p. 3.

<sup>16</sup> Ibid. p. 273.

<sup>18</sup> Ratzel's History of Mankind, Vol. I. p. 364.

Pingle and Nilopant, his two Brâhman advisers, he reminded them, that while all Musalmân places of trust held by Brâhmans had been given up without a struggle, those held by Prabhus had been most difficult to take, and that one of them, Râjpurî, had not yet been taken. They are generally richly and most carefully and neatly dressed. They are hardworking, hospitable,

orderly and loyal, but extravagant and fond of show. They send their children to school and hold their own in spite of the competition of Brâhmans and other non-writer classes."

Valuable, therefore, to ethnographists may be a study of the family godlings, who have clung to the family altars of the Hindus through generations and through many stages of evolution.

### NOTES AND QUERIES.

NICK-NAMES OF VILLAGES AND FAMILIES IN KURRAM, GIVING DOUBTFUL TRACES OF TOTEMISM.

Among the Turi and Bangash Tribes there are several septs which derive their names from some act or incident, of which somewhat puerile accounts are often given. Such are the Magak Khêl or Rat Sept in Dôparzâi, so called because their first ancestor was once sitting in a jirga, and seeing a rat (magak) running about he killed it. The Gidar Khêl, whose ancestor killed a jackal (gidar). The Lêwâ Kôl or 'Wolf Family' of the Musthu Khêl, whose ancestor once killed a wolf with his stick. The Kunriak Kôl or 'Ant Family' in Paiwar, so named because their beds contained many of those insects when a guest was once stopping at their house. The Parkhail family in Zeran, so called because their ancestor once shot at a bird, and, though he missed it, boasted that he had knocked some of its feathers out. The Spagan Kôl or 'Lice family,' so nick-named because their beds were full of those insects. The Sôiân Kôl, so called because their ancestor once declared that he had seen 100 hares when out shooting, but meeting with no credence he reduced the number to 50 and finally to one, and so his descendants are called the 'Hare Sept' to this day. The Span Khêl of Malânâ, so named because a man of a poor family once killed a dog belonging to a rich one, whereupon the rich family demanded a damsel from the poor one in compensation, and her descendants are still called the 'Dog Sept.' The Dagh Kalai hamlet1 of Shingak Village, so named because its founder only gave the workmen rice with very little ght in it when he built the hamlet. The Urkhârî Kalai, so called because its founder only gave his workmen urkhöri (a kind of vegetable) when he built it.

A village in Shingak is called Tarwo Kalai because its inhabitants used to mix tarwi with the food given to their guests: tarwi is water mixed with curds (called dahi in Urdu), and the

food made from this mixture is called lass or tarws in Pashtu. A family in Paiwar had many sparrows' nests in their house and so their descendants are now called Chanchanri Kôl: chanchanra in Pashtu means a sparrow. A village in Shingak is called Khowaro Kalai because the villagers did not feast their guests there one night: khowar means poor. A village near Kunj Abzai is called Shibi Kalai: shiba means a shower: during the Afghan rule the Mughals used to attack the Tari villages, and this village, being the first in their way, was so constantly besieged that it became known as Shibi from the attacks 'showered' on it.

A woman of a family in Shalozân² once made a shirt for her child from cloth which was then used by Hindus only. a Hindu in Kurram is always called châchâ, and so the family is now called Châchâ Kôl Another family in Shalozân, from their constant quarrels, is called Shaukh Kol: shaukh means bad-tempered. A third family in Shalozân is called Pât Kôl: pât means one who does not do things thoroughly: the founder of the family was a big malik, but any dispute referred to him by the people was never properly settled and so he was called Pât and his family Pât Kôl.

A village is called Ghalo Kalai:  $ghal^3$  means 'thief,' because its inhabitants were all thieves during the period of the Afghân rule.

A family in Kaj Kina is called Kharp orân Kôl: kharporan means 'donkey-like': the founder of the family once got a nail stuck in the sole of his foot, but instead of taking it out he walked home and there showed it to his wife; she found that he had a big nail stuck in his foot and so called him donkey: since then the family is called Kharporan Kol.

These derivations are specimens of Pathan humour rather than attempts to account for relics of totemism.

Simla, 6th August 1903.

H. A. Rose.

<sup>1</sup> When a little ght is boiled and put into rice, broth, &c., it is called dagh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Shalozên is a very ancient place, and was once called Sankurên apparently.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Ghal-zai or Ghilzai.

#### EPIGRAPHICAL NOTES.

BY H. LÜDERS, PH.D.; ROSTOCK.

(Continued from page 41.)

No. 11. — Mathura Buddhist inscription on base of pillar of Sam. 47; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 127, No. 1, and Plate; by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 182, No. 1, and Plate; by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 33, No. 12, and Plate.

UNNINGHAM'S transcript of this inscription, which is engraved round the base of a pillar, is on the whole correct. It differs, however, from the facsimiles in reading Dévaputrasya Huvishkasya and sukham, for which the facsimiles distinctly show Dévapûtrasya, Hûvishkasya and sûkha[m]. The form of the king's name with the long vowel is found also in the Bombay University Library inscription edited by D. R. Bhandarkar in the Journ. Bo. Br. Roy. As. Soc. Vol. XX. p. 269.

Another difference between the transcript and the facsimiles occurs in the description of the donor. Cunningham, following Dowson, read bhikshusya Jivakasya Udeyanakasya,31 but if there is any trust to be placed in the facsimiles, the last word is really Odiyanakasya. As Jivaka is said to have been a monk, Odiyanaka cannot be a term denoting a caste or profession, but most probably is the name of some nation or tribe and corresponds to a true Sk. Audiyanaka, a derivative of Udiyana. I am unable to point out such a name in the earlier Sanskrit or Prakrit literature. But perhaps it is connected with Uddiyâna, mentioned after Sindhu, Saurâshtra and Pâñchâla in a list of different countries in the Srishavâyaṇa, a portion of the Rômakasiddhânta.32

With these corrections and some changes in the transliteration Cunningham's text runs as follows:33 —

Sam 40 7 gri 4 di 4 mahârâjasya râjâtirâjasya Dêvapûtrasya Hûvishkasya vihârê dânam bhikshusya Jîvakasya Ôḍiyanakasya ku[m]bhako 20 5 sarvva-satva-hita-sûkha[m] bhavatu sa[m]ghê ch[â]turdiśê. 34

"In the year 47, the fourth (month of) summer, the fourth day. Gift of the monk Jîvaka, the Ôdiyanaka (native of Udiyana?), to the vihâra of mahârāja rājātirāja Dêvaputra Hûvishka. Base of pillar 25. May welfare and happiness of all beings prevail in the community belonging to the four quarters. 35"

No. 12. — Mathura Buddhist inscription on base of pillar of Sam. 47; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 130, No. 18, and Plate.

Of this inscription Rajendralala Mitra offered the following text: -

Datana ra sara (44?) divasa 5 prabu(?)ddhâya dânam bhikshusya Dhammadattasya. Unsatisfactory as the facsimile is, it makes it pretty certain that the true reading is:—

Samvatsarê 40 7 va. divasê 5 asya purvvayê dânam bhikshusya Dharmmadêvasya.36 "In the year 47, in the . . . (month) of the rainy season, on the fifth day, — on that (date specified as) above — the gift of the monk Dharmmadêva."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> Rajendralala Mitra read bhikshu Jivakasya Padiyanakasya in the text and 'the mendicant (Bhikshu) Jivaka Udiyanaka' in the translation.

<sup>32</sup> Aufrecht, Cat. Cod. Sanscr. Bibl. Bodl. p. 340. •
33 The bracketed letters are not visible in the facsimiles. The third & in rajatirajasya is distinct in Dowson's

<sup>84</sup> Cunningham read chaturdise.

<sup>35</sup> With regard to this term compare the remarks of Mr. Senart, Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 59 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> The va of the last word looks more like ta, but this is the case also in the preceding inscription where the reading undoubtedly is *Dharmmadêvasya*.

With the exception of the date of the month, this text would be identical with that of the Mathurâ pillar inscription edited by Rajendralala Mitra, ibid. No. 17, by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 183, No. 5, and by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 33, No. 11. It reads according to Cunningham's facsimile: -

Samvatsarê 40 7 gri 3 divas[ê] 5 asya purvvayê dânam bhikshusya Dharmmadêvasya.

It cannot be denied that the close agreement of the two inscriptions is rather suspicious and apt to lead to the supposition that the va in Rajendralala Mitra's facsimile is merely a mistaken gri, and the whole facsimile nothing but a second copy of Cunningham's No. 11 and his own No. 17. On the other hand. Rajendralala Mitra expressly states that the originals of both inscriptions were deposited in the Museum of the Asiatic Society, and it is not impossible, after all, that Dharmadêva presented more than one pillar and at different times.

No. 13. - Mathura inscription on base of pillar of Sam. 47; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 127, No. 2, and Plate; by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 183, No. 2, and Plate; by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 34, No. 13, and Plate.

Rajendralala Mitra's transcript of this inscription reads: -

Dânam Dêvilisya Dadhikurnnadêvikulikasya sam 59 divasa 80.

Dowson reads: -

Dânam Devilasya Dadhikarnna-devi-kulikasya San 40 7 gri 4 Divaes 20 5.

Cunningham reads: -

Dânam Devilasya Dadhikundi . . Devikulikasya, Sam. 47, — Gr. — 4, Divase 25.

To judge from the facsimiles published together with the three editions, the actual reading appears to be : —

Dânam Dêvilasya Dadhikarnnadêvikulikasya sam 40 7 gri 4 divasê 20 9.

There is some doubt attached to the last figure of the date which, as Dowson remarks, is partly defaced. The i of the akshara vi in odévikulikasya is quite distinct in the facsimiles of Rajendralala Mitra and Cunningham, but wanting in that given by Dowson. As, however, the latter also reads ex in his transcript, I think it almost certain that it is really found in the text.

With regard to the purport of the inscription my three predecessors substantially agree in considering it to record 'the gift of Devila of the race (or of the family) of Dadhikarnadêvi.' There are two objections to this translation. Firstly, Dadhikarnadêvi would be a name unparalleled in the Mathurâ inscriptions, and secondly, there is no other instance of a man being described in this way as belonging to the family of some woman. In my opinion Dadhikarnadêvikulika means the servant (or priest) at the shrine of Dadhikarna.' Dadhikarna is the name of some Naga, and we know from an inscription edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 390, No. 18, that there was a shrine or temple dedicated to him at Mathurâ. That inscription records the setting up of a stone slab 'bhagavatô nágéndrasya Dadhikarnnasya stáné, and although Bühler translated this 'in the place sacred to the divine lord of snakes Dadhikarnna,' he added himself that stana, which stands for Sk. sthana, might also mean 'temple.' The word dévikulika is derived from dévakula, and in correct Sanskrit ought to show vriddhi-strengthening of the first syllable. The i of the second syllable is striking, but an exact parallel is furnished by the Mathurâ inscription edited by Bhagvanlal Indraji in the Actes du Sixième Congrès International des Orientalistes à Leide, Part III. p. 143, where the drawing plainly shows the words drahatd dévikulá, 'a shrine for the Arhats.' Similar instances of the transition of a into i will be found in Prof. Pischel's Grammatik der Prakrit-Sprachen, par. 101-103.

I translate the whole inscription: -

<sup>&</sup>quot;The gift of Dêvila, the servant (or priest) at the shrine of Dadhikarna in the year 47, in the fourth (month of) summer, on the twenty-ninth day."

This and the inscription mentioned above are valuable evidence of the great antiquity of serpent-worship in India, although unfortunately neither of them contains any hint as to the creed which the worshippers of Dadhikarna at Mathurâ professed. That Dadhikarna is invoked in the âhnika mantra of the Harivaniśa, was pointed out already by Bühler, loc. cit. p. 381. It may be added that his name is also found in a list of Nâgas quoted by Hêmachandra in his own commentary on the Abhidhânachintâmani, verse 1311.

No. 14. — Mathura Jaina stone inscription of Sam. 48; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 34, No. 15, and Plate.

Cunningham read this short fragment: -

- 1 Mahârâjasya Huvishkasya Sam. 48 He. 4 Di. 5
- 2 Bama Dâsayakula ukonasaya Siviya dharâ.

The photograph of the stone belonging to Prof. Kielhorn shows that the true reading is:-

- 1 Mahârâjasya Huvishkasya sa 40 8 hê 4 di 5
- 2 Bramadâsiyê kul[ê] U[ch]ênâgariya śâkhaya<sup>37</sup> Dhar. . .

The only difficult letter is the ninth of the second line. There can be little doubt that it is meant for  $ch\hat{e}$ , and that the tail at the base is merely accidental, but it is easy to see how Cunningham came to read  $k\hat{o}$ . The Brahmadâsika kula and the Uchchânâgarî édkhā are mentioned together in numerous Mathurâ inscriptions; see, e. g., Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 381, No. 1; p. 383, No. 4; p. 384, No. 5; p. 389, No. 14, &c.

No. 15. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 40;38 edited by Buhler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 387, No. 11, and Plate.

Bühler read in line C.1 âryya-Haţikiyatô kulatô, but the second akshara of the name is wrong. It cannot be ți, because the curve denoting medial i is always open to the left, whereas this sign, on the contrary, shows a curve open to the right. The akshara is therefore to be read țṭa, and, leaving aside the short vowel of the first syllable, the spelling Haṭṭakiya agrees with that of two other Mathurâ inscriptions edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 201, No. 11 (arya-Hāṭṭakiyātô³ kulatô), and Vol. I. p. 397, No. 34 (aya-Hāṭṭiyē kulē).

The last three lines, which contain the description of the donatrix and her gift, are transcribed by Bühler as follows:—

- A. 3 [sya] dhîtu grami[ka]-Jayadêvasya vadhûyê
- B. 3 mikô Jayanâgasya dharmmapatniyê Sihadatâ[yê]
- C. 3 [lathambh] o danam.

The reading Sihadatáyé is impossible. What is still visible of the last akshara of the line is the left portion of a sa,40 and the correct reading apparently is Sihadatasya. This word must have been followed originally by mâtu, which probably stood at the beginning of line C.3. The description of a female donor in her fourfold character as daughter, daughter-in-law, wife and mother is exactly the same as in the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 2, and probably also in two others edited ibid. Vol. I. p. 395, No. 28, and Vol. II. p. 208, No. 34.

The aksharas lathambhô Bühler wants to restore to śiláthambhô, which would be a very peculiar term for the object which it is meant for. The inscription is incised on the four faces of the pedestal of a quadruple image consisting of four erect naked standing Jinas, placed back to back, and in all other instances (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 2; Vol. II. p. 202, No. 13; p. 203, No. 16; p. 210,

<sup>31</sup> Compare for the locative, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 397, No. 34: aya-Hûttiyê kulê Vajanûgariyû sûkhûyû.

<sup>36</sup> The unit of the date is illegible.

<sup>39</sup> Possibly arya-Hattakiyâtê, the â-stroke being not clear in the photo-lithograph.

<sup>40</sup> Compare the same letter in Jayadêvasya in line A. 3.

No. 37) statues of this sort are termed pratimá sarvatôbhadriká in the inscriptions.41 reading is therefore a priori improbable. But quite apart from this consideration, I own that I do not see how these letters can possibly be read lathambho, even assuming, as Bühler did, that the last two consonants are only half formed. The last sign can hardly be anything but ya, which would seem to indicate that the word is the name of the donatrix, but unfortunately neither the vowel-sign above the va nor the preceding letters are distinct enough in the photo-lithograph to allow any positive reading on this authority alone.

Nos. 16 and 17. - Mathura Jaina image inscriptions of Sam. 52 and 54; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 203, No. 18, and Vol. I. p. 391, No. 21, and Plates.

Buhler's transcripts of these two inscriptions, placed side by side, read as follows:-Siddha samvatsara dvapana 50 2 hemanta-[ma]sa pratha.. divasa pamchaviśa 20 5 asma kshunê K[o]ttiyâtô ganât[ô]48 Vêrâtô kulât[ô] Srîgrihatô Sthânıkiyâtô vâchakasy=âryya-Ghastuhastisya sambhôgâtô ganisy=âryya-Mamguhastisya shadhaśishyô charô vâchakô aryya-Divitasya nirvvartanâ Sûrasya Sramaṇakaputrasya Gotṭikasya lôhikâkârakasya dânam sarvvasatvânam bita-sukhây= âstu I

5042 hêmamta-... dham sava divasê chaturtthê mâsê 10 asya purvvâyâm Koţţiyâtô [ga]nâtô Sthâni-[y]âtô kulâtô Vairâtô śâkhâtô Srîgrih [â]tô vâchakasy=âryya-[Ha]stahastisya sambhôgátô śishyô ganisya aryya-Maghabastisya śraddhacharô vâchakasya aryya-Dêvasya nirvvarttanê Sîha-putrasya lôhika-Gôvasya kârukasya dânam sarvvasatvânâm hita-sukhâ êka-Sarasvatî pratishthâvitâ avatalê rangâna-[rttan]ô mê [II]

The two records so closely agree with each other as to leave no doubt about the identity of the persons mentioned in the first portion. Ghastuhasti and Hastahasti, Maniguhasti and Maghahasti, are nothing but various spellings of the same names. A very similar case occurs in two other Mathurâ inscriptions, Vienna. Or. Journ. Vol. I. p. 172, and Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 204, No. 19. They contain the name of a preacher which in the former is spelt Kakasaghasta, while in the latter it reads Karkuhastha. However, I am not quite sure that Bühler was right in reading Mainguhastisya. The anusvara is very indistinct in the photo-lithograph, and the true reading may be Maguhastisua. which would come nearer to the form used in the other inscription.

Bühler's reading 'Divitasya in the first inscription cannot be upheld. Neither the first nor the second vowel-sign can be i, as the i-sign is much more rounded in this alphabet, and Buller appears to have been aware of it himself, as in a note he quotes oDévétusya as a possible reading. The correct reading undoubtedly is aryya-Dévô tasya, and I think I can discern the traces of the second ô-stroke in the photo-lithograph. The spelling of the name therefore is the same in both inscriptions. As for the construction compare the inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 382, No. 3 (aryya-Mâtridinah tasya nirvvarttaná), p. 383, No. 4 (váchakô aryya-Sîhá tasya nivvarttaná), Vol. II., p. 204, No. 19 (Grahabalô átapikô tasa nivartaná), p. 209, No. 37 (aryya-Kshêrakô váchakô tasya nirvatana). &c.

In the second portion of the first inscription Bühler translated the words Sûrasya Sramanakaputrasya Gottikasya lôhikákárakasya dánam by 'the gift of the worker in metal Gottika, the Sûra, the son of Sramanaka,' taking the word Sûra as the name of Gottika's family or clan. But from the parallel description of the donor in the second inscription as Gôvasya Sîhaputrasya lôhıkakârukasya it is evident that, on the contrary, Sûra is the real name and Gottika a qualifying epithet. The meaning of this word is difficult to ascertain. It may be a proper name characterising Sûra as the

<sup>11</sup> Compare the analogous term sarvatôbhadra, applied to a ślôka the single aksharas of which, if written twice on the squares of a chessboard, yield the same text from whatever side they may be read. For examples, see Kirûtârjunîya XV. 25; Siśupâlavadha XIX. 27, &c.

<sup>42</sup> The figure is quite distinct.

<sup>43</sup> The bracketed signs of the last two words are distinct in the photo-lithograph.

member of some tribe or as the native of some country or town, but no such name is known to us, and I venture to suggest a different explanation. Bühler has shown<sup>44</sup> that in the dialect of these inscriptions the aspiration of conjunct hard aspirates is frequently neglected; in the present inscription also the photo-lithograph shows Stānikiyātô<sup>45</sup> instead of Sthānikiyātô, as transcribed by Bühler. Gojtika may therefore possibly stand for gojtikia, the Prakrit equivalent of Sk. gôshihika, which means the member of a Panch or committee entrusted with the management of religious endowments and in this sense occurs, e. g., in the Pehevâ inscription from the temple of Garîbnâth.<sup>46</sup>

With regard to the last words of the second inscription I am unable to offer any explanation, though it will be readily admitted, I think, that neither Bühler's reading nor his translation of them are satisfactory. The date also of this inscription has been called in question, but, as it seems to me, without sufficient reason. Bühler originally took the date of the year to be 84,47 but changed it into 54 on comparing Growse's inscription No. 5,48 where the date 57 is given both in words and figures. Lately Mr. V. A. Smith, in his monograph on 'The Jain Stûpa and Other Antiquities of Mathurâ,'49 has asserted that the plate clearly reads 44. I own that I cannot discover any resemblance between the first figure of the date and the numeral sign for 40, whereas, on the other hand, I do not see how that figure differs from the signs for 50 occurring in the Mathurâ inscriptions, Ind. Ant. Vol. VI. p. 219, No. 11; Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 203, Nos. 17 and 18. And the date Sam. 54 is also in perfect keeping with the facts to be derived from the first inscription. If Dêva was acting as the spiritual adviser of a member of the lôhikakûraka caste in Sam. 52, it is quite natural to find him in exactly the same capacity in Sam. 54.

No. 18. — Mathura Jaina inscription of Sam. 60; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 386, No. 8, and Plate.

Buhler read the numeral sign indicating the year of this inscription as 40, adding 60 in brackets and with a note of interrogation, but from his remark in *Ep. Ind.* Vol. II. p. 204, note 61, it may be gathered that he would have adopted the second alternative himself, if he had had an opportunity of reverting to this inscription. As to the rest, I only want to point out that instead of ayya-Vêriyâṇa śākhâyâ in line 1, the plate clearly reads aryya-Vêriyâṇam śākhâyâ.

Vṛiddhahasti, the váchaka in the Koṭṭiya gaṇa, the Sthânikîya kula and the śákhā of the venerable Vêriyas, mentioned in this inscription, is probably identical with the person of the same name and vocation referred to in the Mathurâ inscription of Sam. 79, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 204, No. 20.

No. 19. — Mathurâ Jaina image inscription of Sam. 62; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. XX. p. 37, and Plate V. No. 6, and by Buhler, Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. I. p. 172.

This inscription appears to record the dedication of a statue by the Jaina lay-woman Vaihikâ at the request of some ascetic. The phrase containing the latter statement was first read by Bühler Rårakasya Aryakakasaghastasya śishyâ Âtapikôgahabaryasya nirvartana, and translated '(this being) the nirvartana of Âtapikôgahabarya, the pupil of Arya-Kakasaghasta (Ârya-Karkaśagharshita), a native of Rårâ (Rāḍhâ).' But when he had got another Jaina inscription from Mathurâ, dated in the same year and recording some donation vâchakasya âya-Karkuhastha[sa] Vâraṇaganz-

<sup>44</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 376.

<sup>45</sup> Compare stitů in the Girnâr version of the Asôka edicts, VI. 4; also dhammânusastiya III. 3; °sastiyâ IV. 5; °sastî VIII. 4; °sastîm XIII. 9; tistamtî IV. 9; tistêya VI. 13; dhâmadhistânâya V. 4; sêstê IV. 10; Ristika V. 5, and below, No. 31.

<sup>46</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol. I. pp. 186, 188, 190, note 50. See also gôthi in the Bhattiprolu inscriptions Nos. 3, 5 and 9, ibid. Vol. II. p. 327 ff.

<sup>47</sup> Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. III. p. 239.

<sup>48</sup> Ind. Ant. Vol. VI. p. 218, and Plate; Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 210, No. 38, and Plate.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Arch. Surv. of Ind. New Imp. Ser. Vol. XX. p. 56 f. Mr. Smith also thinks that the number of the day, according to the plate, is rather 11 or 12 than 10, and in this he may be right.

yasa śishô Grahabalô átapikô tasa nivartaná, 50 he recognised at once that the persons referred to in the two inscriptions were identical, and that Âtapikôgahabaryasya was to be altered into átapikô Grahabalasya. 51 Another correction seems to be equally certain. The facsimile makes it quite sure that the second akshara of the word read by Bühler Rárakasya cannot be ra. What appears in the facsimile, evidently is nothing but the right and lower portion of a cha, and as Kakasaghasta or Karkuhastha is called a váchaka in the inscription quoted above, I have no doubt that also the supposed rá of the word is simply a mistake for vâ. With these emendations the phrase reads: váchakasya arya-Kakasaghastasya śishyâ átapikô Grahabalasya nirvartana, 'at the request of the átapika Grahabala, the pupil of the preacher, the venerable Kakasaghasta.' The epigraphical evidence for a country of the name of Rârâ thus falls to the ground. As to the rest of Bühler's transcript, Cunningham's facsimile suggests some minor alterations, such as árahantánam for arahantánam, siddhánam for siddhána, but, of course, these are not certain.

## No. 20. - Mathura stone-slab inscription of Sam. 74;

edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 129, No. 15, and Plate; by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 183, No. 4, and Plate; and by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 32, No. 8, and Plate.

The upper right corner of the slab which bears this inscription, is broken off, so that the first two lines of the text are mutilated. But the next three lines are complete, and a transcript of what is actually preserved of the first five lines would therefore read as follows<sup>53</sup>:—

- 1 Mahâr[â]jasya r[â].....
- 2 sya Dêvaputrasya Vâsu . . . .
- 3 samvatsarê 7054 4 varsha-mâ-
- 4 sê prathamê divasê
- 5 tri[m]ś[ê] 30 asya purvvayê.

The three editors agree in restoring the first lines as

- 1 Mahârâjasya râ[jâtirâja]-
- 2 sya Dêvaputrasya Vâsu[dêvasya].

However, if one takes the trouble to measure the available space, it will appear that the restoration of the second line is highly improbable. There is room for two aksharas at the most, especially as the letters are cut pretty carefully and of uniform size. Under these circumstances we are forced, I think, to restore the name of the king to Väsu[shkasya], and this is exactly the name that is to be expected for the time to which the inscription belongs.

The last epigraphical date of Huvishka is the year 60 (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 386, No. 8; see above, p. 105). The inscriptions which refer to the reign of Vâsudêva are dated in the years 80 (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 392, No. 24), 83 (Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 34, No. 16, and below, No. 21), 87 (ibid. p. 35, No. 18, and below, No. 22), and 98 (ibid. No. 20, and below, No. 23). From the period between 60 and 80 we have only two records mentioning a king's name, besides the present one, a Mathurâ inscription dated in 7655 and recording repairs in the reign of Vâsushka, and another from Sânchi, 56 dated [mahârâya]sya râjâtirâjasya [Dêva]putrasya Shâh[i] Vâsushkasya sam [70] 8 hê 1 [di 5] [ê]tasy[âm] [p]u[rv]v[âyâm].

One is accustomed to look upon Vâsushka as a mere variant of the name of Vâsudêva, because the inscriptions dated in his reign seemed to be mixed up with inscriptions referring to the reign of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>50</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 204, No. 19.

<sup>51</sup> Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. V. p. 63.

<sup>52</sup> The correct reading, however, is possibly atapikô Grahabalô tasya.

<sup>55</sup> Of the next lines I can make as little as the former editors.

<sup>54</sup> The first figure of the date was originally read 40, but Cunningham corrected it to 70; see Num. Chron. Ser, III. Vol. XII. p. 50, note 6. Compare the sign for 70 in the Mathurâ inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 199, No. 2, and in the Kâman inscription, ibid. p. 212, No. 42.

<sup>55</sup> Fuhrer, Progress Report, 1895-96; according to V. A. Smith, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. 1903, p. 13.

Ep. Ind. Vol. II p. 369; compare also Buhler's note 10, ibid.

Våsudêva. From the facts collected above it will appear that this is not the case, and I see no reason whatever why Våsushka should not be treated as an individual name and different from Våsudêva. In that case we should have four Kushana rulers at Mathura, whose dates would be according to the inscriptions: Kanishka 5-18, Huvishka 33-60,57 Våsushka 74-78, Våsudêva 80-98. But even those who should prefer to adhere to the belief in the identity of Våsushka and Våsudêva, will probably admit that the difference in the use of the two names cannot be due to mere chance, and they will have to assume that about the year 79 Våsushka, in order to please his Hindu subjects, adopted the name of one of their national heroes. 58

No. 21. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 83; edited by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 184, No. 6, and Plate, and by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 34, No. 16, and Plate.

Cunningham's transcript of this inscription is a great improvement on Dowson's tentative reading, and taking no account of the inaccuracies of his transliteration, his reading of the first line may be called correct. The second line he transcribes:—

. . tridattasya vagrayevya . cha . sya gad-dhikasya . . vichitiye Jina-dâsiya protima.

Bühler has already suggested (Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. IV. p. 324) to alter gaddhikasya into gandhikasya, and from Cunningham's facsimile it appears that we have to read tu instead of tri, and pra instead of pro, which perhaps is only a misprint. Before the tu in the beginning of the line there are traces of another akshara which cannot be anything but dhi. The gra looks rather queer, and I have no doubt that in reality it is dhu. Finally, I am convinced that the word between gandhikasya and Jinaddsiya is to be read kutumbiniye. The tu is quite distinct, and that the next sign in fact is mbi and not vichi, is proved by Dowson's facsimile which in this case is the more accurate of the two. Besides, the latter facsimile has some letters omitted in Cunningham's drawing. On the right, almost between the first and the second line, it shows a dha, and on the left, at the beginning of the first line anam, which certainly is to be restored to danam. Of course, the text cannot have commenced with this word. Apparently the inscription runs in a circle round the pedestal of the statue, and [d] anam is to be read at the end of the first line. And this also cannot have been its proper place, but it was probably placed there only for want of space in the second line. A similar disarrangement of the words of the text is found in the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 202, No. 15. The dha which I take to belong to the second line I would hesitatingly restore to dharma and connect with \[ d \] \( dnam. \) With these corrections the whole text reads: —

- 1 Siddham mahârâjasya Vâsudêvasya<sup>59</sup> sam 80 3 gri 2 di 10 6 êtasya pûrvvayê Sênasya
- 2 [dhi]tu Dattasya vadhuyê Vya . . cha . . sya<sup>60</sup> gandhikasya kuţumbiniyê Jinadâsiya pratimâ dha[rmad]ânam.<sup>61</sup>

"Success! In the year 83 of mahârâja Vâsudêva, in the second (month of) summer, on the sixteenth day, — on that (date specified as) above, — an image, the pious gift of Jinadâsî (Jinadâsî), the daughter of Sêna, the daughter-in-law of Datta, the wife of the perfumer Vya..cha..."

The description of the donatrix agrees with that of the inscriptions quoted above, p. 37.

<sup>57</sup> Probably Huvishka was already on the throne in 28; see above, p. 39.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>58</sup> I would state that it was Dr. Fleet who first expressed his doubts about the identity of V\u00e3sushka and V\u00e3sud\u00e9va in a letter to me, but his arrangement of the list of the Kushana kings is different from mine. I should like to add that these notes were written before Dr. Fleet's paper on the subject had appeared in the Journ. Roy. As. Soc. for 1903, p. 325 ff.

According to Dowson's facsimile the reading would rather be Vasudêvasya.

<sup>60</sup> Dowson's facsimile seems to read Vridacadasya, which cannot be correct.

<sup>61</sup> The last two syllables stand at the end of line 1.

No. 22. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 87; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 35, No. 18, and Plate.

The photograph of this stone which Prof. Kielhorn possesses, enables us to supplement and to correct Cunningham's reading of the date, though, unfortunately, it is not sufficient to restore the rest of the inscription. The first lines read:—

- 1 Siddham 1 62 Maharajasya rajatirajasya Shahir=Vvasudêvasya
- 2 sam 80 7 hê 2 di 30 êtasyâ purvâyâ . . . 63

"Success! In the year 87 of mahārāja rājātirāja Shāhi Vāsudēva, in the second (month of) winter, on the thirtieth day, — on that (date specified as) above . . ."

No. 23. — Mathura Jaina image inscription of Sam. 98; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 35, No. 20, and Plate, and by Bühler, Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. I. p. 177, No. 8.

In his paper on this inscription Bühler first gave a revised transcript of Cunningham's facsimile, and then tried to emend the first two lines in accordance with the statements of the Kalpasūtra. I have compared his corrected text with the photograph of the front of the stone in the possession of Professor Kielhorn. It is not large and distinct enough to allow a thorough reading of the inscription, but it is sufficient to show that not all of Bühler's emendations can be accepted. The facsimile reads as follows:—

- 1 Siddha ô namô arahatô Mahâvirâsyê dêvanâśasya i râjña Vâsudêvasya samvatsarê 90 8 varsha-mâsê 4 divasê 10 1 êtasyâ
- 2 purvvayâ aryya-Dêhiniyâtô<sup>64</sup> gaṇa . . Puridha . . kâ kulava Pêtaputrikâtê śâkhâtô gaṇasya aryya-Dêvadata . ya<sup>65</sup> na
- 3 ryya-Kshêmasya
- 4 prakagirinam(?)66
- 5 kihadiyê praja
- 7 yê . . . . . . . vatô mahá . . . . . . . .

In the first line Bühler corrected siddha  $\delta$  to siddham, but the photograph shows that the supposed  $\delta$  or m is the peculiar stop mentioned above, No. 22, followed here by two vertical strokes. Above the ddha, I think, I can discover the sign of an anusvara. The word devanasasya was taken by Bühler as an epithet of Mahavirasya in the sense of 'destroyer of the gods,' but he had grave doubts about the correctness of the word. On the photograph the de is faintly visible, whereas no trace is recognisable of the second and third aksharas. The last akshara is distinctly sya, and the last but one may be gra or fra, only the subscript r being quite certain. Under these circumstances I fail to see which word can possibly be meant here.

65 Buhler: Dêvadata . va .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>62</sup> The stop is expressed by a curve open to the left with a horizontal bar in the centre, which sign is found also in the Mathurâ inscription, *Ep. Ind.* Vol. I. p. 387, No. 9, and in the Kâman inscription, *ibid.* Vol. II. p. 212, No. 42, see Bühler's note on the latter passage.

<sup>63</sup> Three aksharas after purvâyâ are uncertain.

<sup>66</sup> Buhler: prakagirinë.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>64</sup> Bühler: °Rêhiniyâtő.
<sup>67</sup> Bühler: gatvakasya.

s The restoration De[vaput]rasya, which at first sight would seem natural, becomes improbable by the one, or perhaps even two, horizontal strokes after the word, which apparently are meant as a sign of punctuation.

Of greater importance are the names of the gana, the kula, and the śákhá. Instead of aryua-Déhiniyátó Bühler read Aryya-Réhiniyátó which he at first proposed to correct to Aryya-Róhaniyátó and afterwards 69 to Aryyôdehikiyátó or Aryyadéhikiyátó. The photograph proves that he was right in his last conjecture, though which of the two forms is to be accepted, is here just as doubtful as in the other inscription which contains the name of this gana, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 391, No. 19. The words Puridha . . ká kulava were corrected by Bühler to Parihásakakulatô, but the photograph has Paridh[á]sikátô70 kulátô. The form Paridhásika shows that the Párihásaya of the Kalpasútra must be rendered in Sanskrit by Paridhasaka, and not by Parihasaka as done in the Sacred Books of the East, Vol. XXII. p. 290. We next come to the name of the śakha, which Bühler altered from Pětaputrikáté to Pônapatrikátô in order to conform it to the Púrnapatriká of the Kalpasútra. But the reading Pétaputrikâtô is beyond all doubt in the photograph, and the various readings of the Kalpasûtra, Punna°, Panna°, Sunna° or Suvannapattiya, must be considered corruptions. Such distorted names are by no means rare in the 'List of the Sthaviras,' other examples being Charana for Várana, Vánijja for Thánijja, Piidhammiya for Piivammiya, &c., and the fact and even the reason thereof was known already to the Jaina theologians of the fourteenth century. Thus Jinaprabhamuni says in his Samdéhavishaushadhi71: bahavê 'tra vûchandbhédû lékhakavaigunyáj jáidh i tattatsthaviránám cha sakhúh kuláni cha práyah sámpratam nánuvartanté námántaratirôhitáni vá bhavishyanti t atô nirnayah kartum na paryaté pathéshu.72

Bühler's corrections of Mahávirásyé to Mahávirasya, of purvvayá to purvváyé, and of gaṇasya to gaṇisya are confirmed by the photograph. In line 6 the photograph has Varuṇasya gandhikasya vadhûyé and in line 7 bhagavatô Mahá[vira]sya, as conjectured by Bühler. With these emendations the text will run as follows:—

- 1 Sidddha[mm] 1178 Namô arahatô Mahâvirasya dê . . . . . rasya i râjña Vâsudêvasya samvatsarê 90 8 varsha-mâsê 4 divasê 10 1 êtasyâ
- 2 purvvâyê aryya-Dêhikiyâtô<sup>74</sup> ga[ṇâtô] Paridh[û]sikâtô kulâtô Pêtaputrikâtô śâkhâtô gaṇisya aryya-Dêvadata[s]ya na-
- 3 ryya-Kshêmasya<sup>75</sup>
- 4 prakagirinam(?)
- 5 kihadiyê praja
- 6.. tasya<sup>76</sup> Pravarakasya dhitu Varuṇasya gandhikasya vadhûyê Mitrasa . . . . . . . . . . . . datta gâ(?)
- 7 ye . . . . bhagavatô77 Mahâ[vira]sya.

"Success! Adoration to the Arhat Mahâvira (Mahâvira) the . . . . . ! In the year 98 of rājan Vāsudēva, in the fourth month of the rainy season, on the eleventh day, — on that (date specified as) above, [at the request of] . . . the gaṇi (gaṇin) the venerable Dêvadata (Dêvadatta) out of the venerable Dêhikiya (Dêhikiya)<sup>78</sup> gaṇa, the Paridhâsika kula, the Pêtaputrikâ (Paitāputrikâ!) śākhā, [the gift of] . . . . . of the venerable Kshêma . . . the daughter of Pravaraka, the daughter-in-law of the perfumer Varuṇa, . . . Mitrasa . . . . . [Adoration] to the holy Mahâvira (Mahâvîra)!"

<sup>69</sup> Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. II. p. 144.

<sup>70</sup> The supposed u-stroke in the first syllable of this word seems to be a flaw in the stone. The â-stroke of the third syllable is not quite certain.

<sup>71</sup> Kalpasûtra, ed. by Jacobi, p. 119.

<sup>72</sup> Pětaputriků seems to be equivalent to Sanskrit Paitâputriků. In the Kalpasûtra it is preceded by the name of Maipattiyů which is rendered by Matipatriků, but in analogy to Pětaputriků one feels tempted to correct it to Mâyâputtiyů, Sansk. Mâtâputriků.

<sup>73</sup> Regarding the sign of punctuation see above. 74 Or, possibly, aryy-Odêhikiyûtê.

<sup>75</sup> Lines 3-5 are quite unintelligible. 76 Before tasya traces of an akshara are visible in the photograph.

<sup>77</sup> Probably namô is to be restored before bhagavatô.

<sup>78</sup> Or Udêhikiya (Uddêhikîya).

# FURTHER NOTES ON THE INDO-SCYTHIANS.

# BY SYLVAIN LÉVI.

Extracted and rendered into English, with the author's permission, by W. R. Philipps.

THE articles which were written and published by M. Lévi under the express title of "Notes on the Indo-Scythians" have been presented to the readers of this Journal in Vol. XXXII. above, pp. 381 and 417, and at p. 1 ff. of the current volume, with a few supplementary notes and remarks. The present article brings together, under a title which has been adopted to mark the connection prominently, some more contributions on the same subject, found in other articles written by M. Lévi, which could not be conveniently incorporated in the "Notes on the Indo-Scythians."

# A. - The relations between China and Kanishka.

From the "Journal Asiatique," July-Dec., 1897, pp. 526 ff.

The Fa-yuen-tchou-lin [already mentioned in Vol. XXXII. above, p. 420] enables us to complete and correct one of the data furnished by Hiouen-tsang as to the relations between China and Kanishka. The compiler took his information from an official collection, the Si-yu-tchi, "Memoirs on the Western Countries," drawn up in A. D. 666 by the Emperor's orders, and divided into two sections, the text in 60 chapters, and the illustrations (maps, &c.) in 40.

The Si-yu-tchi says: — "In the kingdom of Ki-pin (Kapiśa) the doctrine of the Buddha is "very wide-spread. In the interior of the capital there is a monastery (vihāra) called Han-seu "(monastery of the Han). Formerly an envoy of the Han, yielding to his own inclination, "erected a Feou-t'ou (Buddha, pagoda). He made it of stones laid together, a hundred tch'eu (feet) high. The practices of worship there differ from the ordinary. In the monastery there is a bone of the skull of the Buddha and there is a hair of the Buddha: the colour of it is "deep blue, and it is twisted like a shell. They have deposited them in the seven jewels, and "they have placed them in a casket of gold. To the north-west of the capital there is the "monastery of the king. In the monastery there is a milk-tooth of the infant Sākya "Bōdhisattva. It is an inch long. On going from there to the south-west, one finds the "monastery of the king's wife. In the monastery there is a Feou-t'ou of copper, a hundred tch'eu high: in this Feou-t'ou there are relics. Every six days, it diffuses during the night a luminous effulgence; the brightness spreads all around from the base to the cupola; it "re-enters the interior when the dawn appears."

Hiouen-tsang (Mémoires, 1, 53) describes the monasteries mentioned in this passage. He gives to the convent which possessed the milk-tooth the same name and the same location; but, according to him, the convent which had the skull-bone and hair was called the "convent of the ancient king."

The Itinerary of Ou-k'ong (J. A., July-Dec., 1895, p. 857) also points out this monastery "which has as relic a bone of the skull of Sākya the Tathāgata." He calls it the "monastery of Yen-ti-li of the king Ki-ni-tch'a." It is therefore certain that the person styled "the ancient king" is Kanishka. Under the enigmatical name Yen-ti-li is perhaps hidden the solution of the problem set by the text of the Si-yu-tchi; perhaps the name in some way refers to the Chinese envoy who came to Kanishka's court. To this, however, M. Lévi, in revising this abstract, has now added a remark, as follows: — Compare, now, Marquart, Ērānshahr nach der Geographie des Ps. Moses Xorenaci, Berlin, 1901, p. 282. We must read Yen-ti chai, instead of Yen-ti-li. The character chai transcribes exactly the title which the Sanskrit denotes by Sāhi, and which the kings of Kapiśa bore regularly from the time of Kanishka. The reference therefore is to "the monastery of Yen-ti śāhi of the king Kanishka."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> [For a later translation, presumably a revised one, see further on, p. 112 f. — W. R. P.]

Moreover, while the Si-yu-tchi places this convent inside the capital, Hiouen-tsang seems to put it outside. The disagreement of the two texts makes one think that the "monastery of the Han" of the Si-yu-tchi really corresponds to the convent which Hiouen-tsang calls by the enigmatical name Jin-kia-lan, "the monastery of the men," which had been founded by Chinese hostages in the time of Kanishka (Mêmvires, 1, 42). The Si-yu-tchi version recalls in a striking manner the history of King-lou or King-hien already discussed (Vol. XXXII. above, p. 419). It confirms the coming of an envoy (cheu) from the Han to the country of the Indo-Scythians; and, as the foundation of the convent goes back to Kanishka's time, the Chinese envoy, who is said to have founded it, must have come to Ki-pin during the reign of Kanishka. This is one reason more for believing that King-lou's mission belongs to Kanishka's reign, and that this reign must be placed about the beginning of the Christian era.

On the identity of Ki-pin and Kapiśa, M. Lévi has an interesting footnote, and refers to the *Journal Asiatique*, July-Dec., 1895, 371-384, and Jan.-June, 1896, 161. The passage in Hiouen-tsang (*Mémoires*, 1, 41 ff.), corresponding to the one in the *Si-yu-tchi* quoted above, is another testimony to the identity. Moreover, the political state of Kapiśa in the time of Ou-k'ong was still as it had been described by Hiouen-tsang.

In the time of Hiouen-tsang, Gandhāra had already "fallen under the domination of the kingdom of Kapiśa" (Mémoires, 1, 104), and the capital of Gandhāra, Ou-ta-kia-han-tch'a (Uda-bhāṇḍa: of. Stein, Zur Geschichte der Qāhis von Kabul) was one of the residences of the king of Kapiśa (Vie, 263). Nagarahara (Mém. 96), Lampaka (Mém. 95), &c., a total of a dozen kingdoms, belonged to Kapiśa (Mém. 41). The city of Takshaśilā had passed recently from Kapiśa to Kashmir (Mém. 152).

As the identification is now well established, the name of Kapiśa becomes of great historical importance, and we may ask if the names of the Scythian princes given on coins as "Kujula-Kapsa" and "Hima-Kapiśa" do not contain the name of their capital city.

It is of interest to note that the Chinese character used to transcribe the first syllable of Kapiśa is employed to designate hair-cloths which came from Si-hou, i. e. from the western barbarians. According to Couvreur's dictionary the word has that value in The History of the First Han.

A note appended to the Nu-sien-king (Milinda-praśna) in the Ming edition, says:— Ki-pin is a fan, i. e. Indian, word, meaning "a race without value."

The name Kapiśa, though so rarely mentioned by western authors, is found unexpectedly in the Midrasch, Vayikra Rabba, ch. 5, where Kapiśa is represented as the most distant country (Neubaner, Géographie du Talmud). There a commentator on Isaias 22, verse 18, "he will toss thee like a ball into a large country: there shalt thou die," says of the "large country": — "It is Kapiśa." The Vayikra Rabba is a Palestinian work of the 7th century.

# By- The missions of Wang Hiuen-ts'e in India.

From the "Journal Asiatique," Jan.-June, 1900, pp. 297-341, and 401-468.

Wang Hiuen-ts'e was a contemporary of Hiouen-tsang. He had been prefect of Hoang-choei in the district of Young. Afterwards he was attached as second to the mission of Li I-piao, who started for India in the third month of 643 with an escort of twenty-two men. The object of the mission was to escort back to India a brahman, an official guest of the empire, or to convey to the king Harsha-Sīlāditya a reply from the emperor. The brahman no doubt was an ambassador of this king. After a journey of nine months, the mission arrived at Magadha in the twelfth month of 643. It remained some time in India. In 645, at the end of the first month, it was at Rājagṛiha; it ascended Gṛidhrakūṭa, and left an inscription there. Fifteen days after, it was at Mahābōdhi, and there also left an inscription. In going to or returning from India, it passed through Nepal, where the king Narēndradēva treated Li I-piao with honour.

Wang Hiuen-ts'e was soon again sent to India. In 646 apparently, he received the title "chief of the guard and archivist," and was sent again to Magadha, with Tsiang Cheu-jenn as second, and an escort of 30 horsemen. While the mission was on its way, the king Harsha-Silāditya died. His minister Na-fou-ti O-lo-na-choen had usurped the throne, and he received Wang Hiuen-ts'e as an enemy. His escort was murdered: but he and his assistant escaped into Nepal, where Narēndradēva was still reigning. The king of Tibet, Srong-tsan Gam-po, was an ally of China, and in 641 had married a princess of the imperial family. These two kings gave Wang Hiuen-ts'e their aid. With 1,200 Tibetans and 7,000 Nepalese horsemen, he fell upon Magadha, took the capital, and carried off the king to China, where he arrived in 648, the fifth month, on the day keng tzeu. Wang Hiuen-ts'e was promoted to the dignity of tch'aosan-ta-fou. Afterwards, when the mausoleum of the emperor T'ai-t'soung, who died 649, was built, the statue of O-lo-na-choen was placed in the avenue leading to the tomb, along with the statues of Srong-tsan Gam-po, and of the kings of Kou-tche, Kao-tchang, &c.

In 657, Wang Hinen-ts'e with the title of wei-tch'ang-cheu was sent again by imperial order to the western countries. This time, it was to offer a kxshāya at the holy places. The object of the mission was also to bring back to China a certain Hinen-tchao, whom Wang Hinen-ts'e had previously met in India, and whose eminent virtue he had pointed out in his report. We know some of the stages of this journey. The mission passed through Nepal in 657: in 659 it was in the kingdom of Fo-li-che: in 660 it was at the convent of Mahābōdhi, which it left on the first day of the tenth month; and in 661 it was at Kapiśa, returning to China. Vaiśālī had also been visited on the way, and a grand entertainment had been there given by the emperor of India in honour of Wang Hinen-ts'e.

We know no more of the life of Wang Hiuen-ts'e, but he must have written his memoirs regarding his journey before 666.

The memoirs written by Wang Hiuen-ts'e have been lost. Some fragments have been preserved in the Fa-yuen-tchou-lin, the famous encyclopædia of Buddhism, compiled by Tao-cheu and finished 668. The memoirs of Wang Hiuen-ts'e and of Hiouen-tsang served also as a basis for the official compilation, the Si-yu-tchi (or Si-kouo-tchi), written in 666.

M. Lévi, in the present article, has given a translation of all the fragments contained in the Fa-yuen-tchou-lin, together with much connected information. He has also given several extracts from the Si-yu-tchi, which are of interest to Indologists. The entire article seems well worth their attention, but here we are necessarily only concerned with what may serve to complete or correct M. Lévi's Notes on the Indo-Scythians, viz., with the 5th and 11th fragments given by him from the Fa-iouen-tchou-lin.

The 5th fragment is from Chap. 29, p. 93 b, col. 10, where the compiler, summing up the journey of Hiouen-tsang, mentions the convent of the Ancient King in Kapiśa (cf. Hiouen-tsang, Mém. 1, 53). "At this very time, at the beginning of the spring of the first year "Loung-so (661) of the Great T'ang, the envoy Wang Hiuen-ts'e returning from the kingdoms "of the West, officially makes offerings there."

The 11th fragment is from Chap. 38, p. 62 a, col. 9: — "The Si-yu-tchi says: — In the "kingdom of Ki-pin (Kapiśa) the doctrine of the Buddha is very wide-spread. In the interior of the capital there is a monastery called the convent of the Han. Formerly an envoy of the "Han came into this country and erected there a Feou-t'ou (stūpa); he made it of stones heaped up a hundred tch'eu (feet) high. The practices of the worship there differ from "all the other rites. In the convent, there is a bone of the skull of the Buddha, and also a "hair of the Buddha which is deep blue and twisted round in the manner of a shell. They have deposited it with the seven jewels, and they have inclosed it in a little casket of gold.

"To the north-west of the capital there is the convent of the king. In this convent there is a milk-tooth of the infant Sākya Bōdhisattva; it is an inch long.

"On going from there to the south-west, one finds the convent of the king's wife. In this convent there is a Feou-t'ou of copper, a hundred tch'eu high. In this Feou-t'ou there "are relics. On the six days of abstinence it diffuses in the night a luminous effulgence; the "brightness spreads all round it from the base to the cupola, then re-enters the interior at the "break of dawn."

On pp. 447-468, under the sub-heading Les monastères du Kapiça — Les Han et les Yue-tchi, M. Lévi comments upon these passages.

The monastery of the Ancient King, where Wang Hiuen-ts'e was in 661, is mentioned by Hiouen-tsang (Mém. 1, 53). The other monasteries named in the Si-yu-tchi are also described by Hiouen-tsang; the pilgrim Ou-k'ong, who visited the same region between 760 and 764, gives the names of several monasteries; but these names are not Sanskrit: they are probably Turki. The convent of the Ancient King is the monastery of the king Yen-t'i-li (read Yen-ti chai; see page 110 above) of Ou-k'ong (J. A., July-Dec., 1895, 357). The convent of the king with the milk-tooth of the Buddha is described under the same name by Hiouen-tsang (1, 53). The convent of the wife of the king (ibid.) is the convent Pin-tche of Ou-k'ong (loc. cit. 356), a designation which recalls the title of Pin-tcheou given to the queen of the Kingdom of the Women, Niu-Wang (History of the T'ang, quoted by Bushell, Early History of Tibet, in J. R. A. S., 1880, N. S., 12, 532).

There remains the monastery of the Han. The relics deposited there, according to the St-yu-tch, are exactly those which Hiouen-tsang saw in the convent of the Ancient King. But the origin which is here attributed to it, closely recalls the tradition related by Hiouen-tsang, regarding a convent enigmatically designated in the Memoirs by the name Jin-kia-lan (1, 42), and Cha-lo-kia in the Biography (1, 71 and 75). Neither of these names can be reduced to Sanskrit originals.<sup>2</sup>

It is probable that the name "Monastery of the Han" given in the Si-yu-tchi, corresponds to the T'chen-tan-hou-li of Ou-k'ong. "Hou-li" seems to be the Tartar translation of "vihāra" (J. A., July-Dec., 1895, 389). As to Tchen-t'an, M. Lévi has shewn (Mélanges de Harlez, 182 seq.) that it corresponds to Chīna-sthāna, Chīn(a)tthān(a), "China," and subsidiarily to the title dēvaputra, "Son of Heaven" [see also Vol. XXXII. above, p. 421]. In fact, the Chinese origin of the monastery is hardly doubtful: the disagreement between Hiouen-tsang and the Si-yu-tchi does not even imply two divergent traditions. The official compilers of the Si-yu-tchi would have had a repugnance to relate the history of a Chinese prince kept as a hostage by the Yne-tchi, and would have transformed the prisoner into an official envoy. Perhaps also they borrowed from Wang Hiuen-ts'e, or some other traveller, the tradition they adopted.

Founded among the Yue-tchi, whether by a Chinese hostage or by a Chinese envoy, the monastery of the Han links together the Indo-Scythians and the Chinese. It brings forcibly to mind the journey of that enigmatical "King," who passes as the first propagator of Buddhist texts in China. M. Lévi's discussion of this tradition has been given above (Vol. XXXII. p. 419). M. Specht, in the J. A., July-Dec., 1897, p. 166, disapproved of his translation and interpretation; and M. Lévi here meets these criticisms, and publishes new texts which he has since collected.

The dispute is essentially about a passage in the Wei-leao, "Abridged History of the Wei," quoted in an annotation in the San-kouo-tchi and other compilations. The text, as it has come down to us, is full of uncertainties and obscurities. Its author, in dealing with the introduction of Buddhism into China, relates that a person named King entered into communication with a king of the Yue-tchi in 2 B. C. But did this Chinaman receive Buddhist sūtras from the Yue-tchi, or did they from him? The question may seem idle: it is really of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> On the convent of Cha-lo-kia, compare, now, also Marquart, op. cit. (page 110 above), p. 283. — S. L.

great importance. The conversion of the Yue-tchi is involved, and this conversion dominates the history of Buddhism. It marks a new phase.

To solve the difficulties of the text, M. Specht called to his aid the redaction given in three works later than the San-kouo-tchi, and dated respectively in the 9th, 10th, and 12th century. M. Lévi has discovered four new citations in works of the 7th century. Their testimony is weighty, as they are not far from the epoch when the existence of the Wei-leao was still attested; the annotations of the San-kouo-tchi belong in fact to the 5th century. The original still existed, or the tradition regarding it was still solid and precise.

The four new citations given by M. Lévi are from: -

- 1. The Koang-houng-ming-tsi by Tao-siuen (founder of the Vinaya school in China), compiled 650-667 (K).
  - 2. The Tsi-cha-men-pou-ing-pai-siu-tang-cheu by Yen-ts'oung, in 662 (T).
  - 3 and 4. The Pien-tcheng-loen by Fa-lin, between 624 and 640 (T and P').

These four citations, K, T, P and P', all differ from the San-kouo-tchi. They also differ among themselves.

The following translation shews the variations: - "The abridgment of the Wei, in the "chapter on the Countries of the West, says: — The king of Lin-i had no son. He therefore "sacrificed to the Buddha. His wife Mo-ye (Māyā) saw a white elephant in a dream and "became pregnant. And a son was born to her. He came out from her right side, and came "to the world spontaneously. He had a roll of hair [chignon] at the top of the head; shaking "the earth he was able to walk seven paces. As he had the appearance of a Buddha, and as "he had been obtained thanks to a sacrifice to the Buddha, they gave to the prince the name "of Buddha. In the kingdom (of Lin-i: T, P', K) there was a holy man named Cha-liu. (Here "is what they tell of him: P', K.) Being very aged, he had white hair and resembled Lac-"tzeu. Constantly he instructed the people (the men: T, P', K) on the subject of the Buddha. "If heaven sent a calamity on men, if for example they had not sons, he bound them to "practise the penances and the observances of the Buddha, and to part with what they " possessed in order to redeem their faults. It is not long ago, the Yellow-Caps, on seeing that "he had an entirely white face, have substituted for this Cha-liu the designation of Lao-tan; "they have been able in security to cheat and deceive China. In the time of Ngai-ti of the "First Han (in the period Yuen-cheou: T), Ts'in King went (was sent: T, P', K) to the king-"dom of the Yue-tchi. Their king ordered his son, the heir presumptive, to communicate "(so in the four texts, not "receive") orally the holy books of Buddha (to King: T, P', K). "On returning into China, that which he reported of Buddha was in sum altogether in "accordance with the books of the Tao. (And it is thus that the doctrine of the books of the "Buddha came early among the First Han: T, P', K)."

In order to fix the text of this important passage, the redaction cited in the San-kowo-tchi is also given. The following is a translation from the French:—

"Kingdom of Lin-eul. The sacred books of the Buddha say: — The king of this kingdom begot the Buddha. The Buddha was heir presumptive. His father was called Sie-treou (Suddhōdana); his mother Mo-ye (Māyā). The Buddha had the body and the garment of yellow colour, the roll of hair [chignon] blue like blue silk, the breast blue, the hair [of the body] red like copper. First Māyā saw in a dream a white elephant and she became pregnant; afterwards she brought forth a child. He came out in being born from the right side of his mother and he had a knot. Shaking the earth, he was able to walk seven paces. This kingdom is in India; the capital is the centre of India.

"Moreover, there is a holy man named Cha-liu. Formerly, the first year of the period "Iouen-cheou of Ngai-ti of the Han, King-lou, titular student of the imperial college, was "sent on a mission among the Great Yue-tchi; having received them orally, he preserved

"sacred books of the Buddha, which said: — 'The second founder, it is this man.' In the "sacred books which he brought, lin pou se (?) sang men pe wenn chou wenn pe chou wenn pi"k'ıu cheng men, are all the titles of the disciples. The books of the Buddha which he brought, "agree completely with the Chinese books of Lao-tzen."

Compared with the others, the text annexed to the San-kouo-tchi appears clearly as altered and truncated. It has preserved some details which are wanting elsewhere regarding the person of the Buddha, the name of his adepts, the precise year of King-lon's journey, and the alleged situation of Kapilavastu at the centre of India. But it omits the information, curious but nevertheless correct in the main, regarding the worship of the Buddhas before the Buddha Sākyamuni, the propitiatory sacrifice offered by Suddhōdana, and the origin of the name of the Buddha. It preserves the mention of Cha-luu, but omits the curious episode which justifies such mention, and which attaches the remembrance of this person to the history of the internal dissensions of China in the 2nd century. The passage telling of the relations between King(lou) and the Yue-tchi is so obscure, that it apparently lends itself to contradictory interpretations. The disorder seems to increase gradually, and towards the end is very obvious.

The kingdom Lin-eul (= Lin-ni), or Lin-i by a slight modification of the second Chinese character has its name from the garden of Lumbini, where the Buddha was born. M. Lévi here makes some observations on the Chinese forms of the name (Loung-pi-ni, La-fa-ni, Lin-pi-ni, Lin-pi), and afterwards remarks that the author of the Wei-leao seems to have mistaken the name of the garden for the name of the kingdom (Kapilavastu).

M. Lévi has already shewn (see Vol. XXXII. above, p. 425) that Cha-liu may be the common translation of Sāriputra (Prākṛit Sariyut). Here he adds that, according to Fa-hien (ch. 16), the Buddhist monks of India, wherever they established themselves, put up towers in honour of Sāriputra, Maudgalyāyana and Ānanda, and parallelly in honour of the Abhidarma, the Vinaya and the Sūtras. Sāriputra and the Abhidharma, which corresponds to him, are put in the first rank. As to the use, in the name Cha-liu, of the Chinese character cha to represent an Indian non-cerebral sibilant, compare p'ing-cha for the name of the king Bimbisāra in a translation by Tchi just at the time of the Wei (223-253). The traditional forms cha-men. pi-cha-men for "śramaṇa," "Vaiśravaṇa," shew also the same character used in the same way before the time of scholarly transcriptions. It happens also that in these various examples the cha uniformly represents sibilant + ar, the r being moveable within the Sanskṛit syllable cf. σαρμανες with śramaṇa, dhrama and dharma, &c.).

The different titles of the disciples of the Buddha given in the text can only in part be brought back to Sanskrit originals. Pi-k'iu and cheng-men and sang-men, are the ordinary transcriptions of "bhikshu" and "śramaṇa." The expressions containing the word wenn "to hear" (pe-wenn, pe-chou-wenn) probably equal "śrāvaka" (the hearer).

M. Lévi adds some further information he has collected about the Yue-tchi.

The I-tsie-king-in-i of Hiuen-ing, composed about 649, in the notes upon the Mi-tsi-king-kang-li-cheu-king (sūtra on the Malla [or Licchavi] Guhya-pada-vajra [?])<sup>3</sup> has the following note:— "Yue-tchi. It is the kingdom of Pou-kia-lo; it is situated to the north-west of the mountain "of the Snows (Himālaya)."

Pou-kia-lo is clearly Pukkhalavatī, Pushkaravatī (IIeukela of the Greeks), mentioned as capital of the Yue-tchi in the passages quoted in J. A., Jan.-June, 1897, pp. 9 and 42 (see Vol. XXXII. above, p. 423). The compiler Hiuen-ing no doubt reproduced a gloss in the translation, but we do not know when the sūtra was translated, or what sūtra it was. The

<sup>3</sup> I have since established that this sūtra is in fact the third sūtra of the Ratnakūta, Japanese edition, II, 1, 47b. The corresponding Sanskrit title is Tathāgata-guhya-nirdēśa (Nanjio, 23, 3). — S. L.

Li-cheu-king, annotated by Hiouen-ing, was in five chapters, and referred to the Yue-tchi, and also to Yu-tien (Khotan) and K'iu-tsi (Keutche). There is nothing of the sort in the Li-cheu-king of our collections.<sup>4</sup>

The Kiu-che-loun-soung-chou, commentary on the Abhidarma-kōśa, mentions in its historical introduction, the name of Kanishka (Kia-ni-tcha-kia), and cites the interpretation given by Hoei-hoei, a learned commentator at the end of the 12th century. Hoei-hoei explains the name by tsing kin che, "colour of pure gold." It is curious to note that this translation adapts itself equally to the Sanskrit form, and to the Chinese. Kanishka might easily be from kanaka, "gold," while the Chinese words [tsing] kin-che, "colour of [pure] gold," sound like an echo of Kanishka.

M. Lévi's concluding observations are to the following effect.

The texts he has collected seem to him to leave no doubt that the Buddhist authors or compilers of the 7th century reproduced the information about the Buddha and about King's journey contained in the Wei-leao, without borrowing it from the extract inserted in the annotations of the San-kouo-tchi. We have there an independent translation, direct or indirect as it may be. Whether taken immediately from the Wei-leao or borrowed from intermediaries, our citations suppose the existence of at least two recensions, near enough, and also different enough at the same time, to serve to control each other. The comparison of these recensions enables us to definitely solve the problem of the enigmatical King. Thus: — In 2 B. C. a Chinaman went to the country of the Yue-tchi: the king of the Yue-tchi caused some of the Buddhist texts to be communicated to him by his own son, the prince, his heir; the Chinaman, having returned to his country, made them known there. The comparison of the different redactions leaves no place at all for any other interpretation.

After having established the fact, we can follow the gradual modifications of the tradition.

The Chew-kia-fang-tchi of Tao-siuen (650 A. D.) and the Fa-yuen-tchou-lin (668) mention in identical terms the journey of King-hien (J. A., Jan.-June, 1897, pp. 19-20; see Vol. XXXII., above, p 420). So does the Po-sie-loun, by Fa-lin (624-640). But by the end of the 7th century the recension of the San-kouo-tchi tends to prevail. Hiuen-i, just about 700, in the Tchenn-tcheng-loen has the very text preserved in the San-kouo-tchi, and he understands it, not as M. Specht, but as M. Lévi does, for he adds: — "It is to start from this moment that the law of the Buddha began gradually to spread itself towards the east," i. e. towards China. Moreover, before relating the journey of King-(hien) he says: — "One began to learn the existence of the doctrine of the Buddha under Ngai-ti."

Thus Hiuen-i, who adopts the same text as that used by M. Specht, and also Fa-lin, Taosiuen and Tao-cheu, all make King a Chinaman, who went on a journey or mission among the Yue-tchi, and brought back from their country the Buddhist doctrine.

From the 8th century the San-kouo-tchi recension alone seems to be found, to the exclusion of the others. M. Specht has pointed out three compilations, of the 9th, 10th, and 12th centuries, which reproduce it. The author of the Soung-kao-seng-tch'oen, composed in 988, while averring the resemblance between the teachings of the Buddha and of Lao-tzeu, expressly refers to the San-kouo-tchi (ch. 3, p. 81 b).

To sum up: —Whatever be the recension adopted as a basis, criticism and tradition allow only one interpretation: — In 2 B. C. the king of the Yue-tchi was a Buddhist, and his zeal laboured to propagate the religion in the direction of China. The consequences which M. Lévi has thought can be drawn from this fact, remain intact.

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  In reality, this sutra was translated by Tchou Fa-hou under the Western Tsin, between 265 and 316 A. D. - S. L.

# FEMALE TATTOOING AT VINDHYACHAL, NEAR MIRZAPUR, UNITED PROVINCES.

BY B. A. GUPTE, F.Z.S.

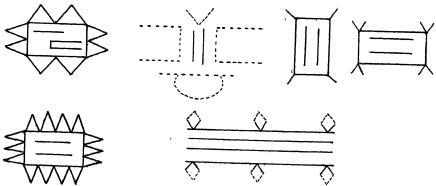
As Vindhyachal is an ancient rock-temple of the primitive type, which is said to have been the "place-name" of a goddess worshipped by some of the families of the Chândrâsenî-Kâyasth Prabhus of Bombay and Poona, I was requested by the Poona Club of that Society to avail myself of the opportunity of examining this place on a journey to Calcutta. The temple has been separately described for the monograph of the Provincial Superintendent of Ethnography, but a few notes on the local tattooing collected simultaneously are given here:—

A Kahar woman, who said that her people serve as domestics or menials, had the *ludid* or curry-pestle or stone-hammer marked on her left arm thus (). On the right arm were four

fish, showing that she was originally of the fisher-caste, as the Kahârs are. She had also Sîtâ's rasôî or hearth. These women, as domestic servants, have to pound the curry-stuff and to help generally in cooking operations by cleaning the domestic hearth, the cooking pots, &c. The profession and caste of the woman were therefore both shown in her tattoo marks.

A Govala or Cow-herd woman examined was also a domestic servant, but instead of the fish of the Kahâr woman she had a group of five dots  $\vdots$ ., which she called "the five milk-maids of Kṛishṇa." The  $l\delta d\hat{a}$  or ludid, curry-stone, was there all the same. On the dorsum of her hand she had a figure of the  $y\delta n\hat{i}$ , which she did not like to name,  $\bigcirc$ .

But her great ambition, a faithful husband, was shown in the Râm's machia, so, or cot. That Râm was so faithful to his wife as to be called प्रक्त श्रेष्या, or one who 'slept on one bed only,' is a well-known tradition, and every woman naturally considers him a model-husband. The proximity of Oudh, the birth-place of Râm, seems to have influenced the religion of the half-cultured tribes of Vindhyâchal to a marked degree, because a **Râidâs woman** and three **Ahîr women**, examined on the same day, all had the Râm's bed and Sîtâ's hearth tattooed on their arms, although they differed in shape in each case. The following reproductions will show the variations:—



Râm's faithful bed and Sîtâ's tabooed hearth seem to be the greatest ambition of these women. One of the Ahîr women refused to admit that she had anything like a name on her arm, but in the midst of a blurred and confused design, scarcely visible, was the distinct name TH in an incomplete state as given here. Three local priests, who were sitting with me, were asked to read the legend, and they all agreed that it was the name of Râm.

One great peculiarity in all the specimens seen here was, that about two inches below the elbow-joint was a row of confused designs resembling bangles in some shape or other. This belt ended just where the last of the bangles reached the arm from the wrist-joint. Even a Gadaria or shepherd woman examined, who had no other symbol, had a broad band running round her arm in fantastic curves, zig-zags, lines, and dots.

The most important point to be noted was the statement "that no girl in this locality is tattooed before marriage, and that the operation is performed as soon after marriage as possible." This statement was corroborated by the local priests.

#### MISCELLANEA.

SOME CONTRIBUTIONS TOWARDS A GLOS-SARY OF RELIGIOUS AND OTHER TERMS USED IN THE PANJAB.

The "Proposals for a Glossary of Indian Religious Phraseology" (Ind. Ant. 1903, pp. 278-80) have so far been justified by results, as the following contributions are only a part of the material already collected, and it is certain that in the remoter parts of the Panjab a large number of words relating to local customs, beliefs and practices, and local words relating to orthodox beliefs, &c., will be found to exist.

I am indebted for many useful contributions to L. Chela Râm, Revenue Assistant in the Dera Ghâzi Khân District, in which Western Panjâbî is the dialect of the Hindû population. For this dialect reference may be made to Juke's Dictionary of Western Panjábí (Kegan Paul, Trench and Trübner, 1900). In the South-West Panjab the customs of the people differ markedly from those in the rest of the Province, and many of the words now given relate to customs as yet undescribed.

It is hoped that in a subsequent note much fuller and more interesting contributions will be given, including some of the many words to be found in Temple's Legends of the Panjab and other works.

It remains to notice the wide meaning given by many of my contributors to the term 'religious.' It is characteristic of India that it is taken to include social observances and much else. -H. A. Rose.

Achhar, achhara. - See tichhar.

Aga. - Songs sung by Hindu women at weddings and similar occasions. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Agamat. - The words recited in the ear of a new-born child. (Deiâ Ghâzî Khân)

Arpan, offering; - karnd, to offer (Sanskr.).

Arthi. — A coffin.

Ankut. - A Hindu holiday in which the Govardhan mountain is worshipped, and rice, pulse, and sweetmeat distributed (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Aya, period of life (Sanskr.).

Bau. — Equivalent to haldat, q. v.

Bêl. — The money passed round the head of a religious leader or deity and given to a priest: karna, to perform the above ceremony. Also called nanchhawar.

Bhaji. — Anything distributed by Hindus among brethren in a marriage or other ceremony. The word literally means cooked vegetables or lentils, but some Hindus by it denote meat or flesh (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.) Cf. Panjâbî Dictionary, p. 118.

Bhêt. — Money or things offered to a deity. Also called bhet puja.

Bhit. - Lit., 'a door,' in Pôtôhârî, acc. to the Panjábí Dictionary, p. 138. In Derâ Ghâzî Khân it means 'the abstention from touching others for several days after a birth or death.'

Bhitti. - From bhitan, to touch or to be touched. A woman in her menses is so termed because she is supposed to have been touched by a low-caste woman

Bhôg. -- (1) Any good eatable thing offered to a deity. (2) Sexual intercourse.

Bhôra. — Equivalent to kanja, q. v

Biwan. — Lit, 'air-car.' The Hindus believe that the spirits of good ancestors are carried to heaven in biwans. Therefore, when a Hindu, man or woman, dies at a very advanced age, having grandsons or great-grandsons, the death is regarded as an occasion for rejoicing. The body is placed in a sirhi, or board adorned. with paper-flowers, etc., and made in the form of a boat, and the whole structure, which is covered with silk-cloth, is called the biwan. A feast is given to all the relatives, and the women of the family dance and sing as if at a wedding. (Ferozepur.)

Bûr. — Equivalent to saga, q. v.

Busrî. — See under kuprî.

Būți. — Lit., a plant. Also a woman who believes in spirits. The followers of a shrine or religious institutions are also called bûtî. (Derā Ghâzî Khân.)

Chauki — The case enclosing a rakh, q. v. Equivalent to takhti, q. v.

Chêlâ, s. m, fem. chélí, fem. dim. chélrí. Ex., a little girl is the chelre or young disciple of a gurú. In Derâ Ghâzî Khân chêld means a believer in the existence of evil-spirits, and chélrí, a woman possessed by an evil-spirit.

Chhattê, pl -e. - The hairs kept by Hindus after the jhand ceremony.

Chhatti - The hair of a child which is kept after the jhand (q. v.) or first shaving.

Chhûhanra — Lit., dried dates. Also the ceremony of sending the barber or parchit of the girl's parents to those of the boy, with a present of seven dates, a rupee and a lump of gur. The boy's parents collect their relatives and friends to witness the betrothal and the messenger receives a cloth as a present. Also called shagan.

Chôla. — The ceremony of clothing a child for the first time, among Hindus. (Derå Ghåzi Khân.)

Chung. - Lit, a handful. The ceremony of grinding corn at a marriage among Hindus. Also dues paid to village menials and beggars. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.) Cf. jindrort.

Churêl. — The malignant evil spirit of a woman who has died in childbirth.

- Dakni. A female evil-spirit. Also called churél.
   Dalel. Scented articles sprinkled on a corpse before burial, by Muhammadans.
- Dêô-kaj Re-marriage with the wife after the birth of the first son of the marriage.
- Dêwên Dhamâî. Ancestor-worship, among Hindus, at a wedding, to implore their protection of bride and bridegroom. (Derâ Ghâz Khân). Cf. dhâmâ.
- Dhaga. A thread of black wool tied round a limb near a sore, after it has been breathed upon by a man who also recites a secret charm over it.
- Dhâmâ. A feast given to Brâhmans in the name of deceased ancestors. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Dhawana. The bathing on the 3rd day after a death among Muhammadans, performed by the deceased's family. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Dhuni. See *dhunra*. Dhuni also means the things, such as chillies, burnt before a person possessed by an evil-spirit, to expel that spirit. Also a place where fire is kept burning night and day. Sadhus and faques keep a fire burning at a fixed spot in order to extort charity.
- Dhunrâ. A heap of ashes. Certain orders of faqirs accustom themselves to remain near a fire as a penance. This fire is called in Panjâbî dhūnā or dhūni, and the followers of a faqir are said to belong to his dhūnā.
- Dhuria. The playing in the dust on the last day of the Holi.
- Fatila The popular inversed form of palltâ, q v in Multani Glossary, p. 50.
- Ganda. An enchanted thread worn round the neck or waist to remove disease or other evil.
- Gáṇḍhā. Lit., knotted. Dealings at marriages and other ceremonies (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Gàudhur. The dust thrown up by the passage of cows at the Gôpashṭami festival. It is considered sacred by Hindus. (Derâ Ghâzi Khân)
- Ghôrt. Lit, mare. During the night of the wedding the boy must ride a mare. He then becomes a bridegroom. This is called the ghôrt kt rasm or mare's custom
- Haldat. The ceremony of cleansing the body of the bride or bridegroom with halds or turmeric (f from hald-s and hath, hand) Also called hân
- **Hån.** Equivalent to haldåt, q v.
- Handa. Bread given to a Brâhman.
- Hom Cooked rice and milk offered to Dêvî.

  Also a ceremony for propitiating the gods.

  (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Hiwan A coffin of extraordinary size.
- Jadu. A spell. Also called kartút.
- Jana'uni See sund'uni.
- Jhand. The ceremony or rite of shaving a child's head for the first time. It is usually performed at a shrine or temple with various observances.
- Jindrort. The ceremony of grinding wheat at marriages, among Hindus. *Cf. chung*.

- Jogi, s. m, fem jôgan. The form jôgat (fem) expresses abhorrence or anger, and it also means a goddess, countless evils, such as sickness and evil-fortune, being termed jôgat
- Junj. Eatables distributed among the brotherhood and to the poor at a wedding, by Hindus. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Káj (1) A feast given to Brâhmans and members of the caste on the death of an aged member of the family Also called karni and in villages mélá. (2) A wedding, cf déó-káj
- villages mølå. (2) A wedding, of deó-káj Kåj-ginrtra. — The fixing by the brotherhood of the dates for the various rites at a wedding. among Hindus. (Derå Ghazî Khân.)
- Kanji. A ceremony performed in the 7th or 9th month of the first pregnancy. Also called bhord. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Karni. (1) See under kaj. (2) An assembly of the brotherhood on the 13th day after death, when water is thrown on a cow's tail. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)
- Kartut. A spell. Equivalent to lag, q. v., and jadu, q. v.
- Kupri A sweet kind of bread given to a daughter soon after her marriage, among Hindus. It is called busri by Muhammadans. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Lag. Something given to an enemy to eat which causes his sickness or death. Also called kartút.
- Lapân. Sweetmeats and clothes given by women to brotherhood at weddings, among Hindus. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Lola. A small, thick loaf, fried in ghi, made on certain festivals. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Lônrt. Worshipping of fire on the last evening of the month of Pôh. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Mahâ Nandî. A Hindu festival. (Derâ Ġhâzî Khân.)
- Man. Coarse bread, cooked on a fire of dry cowdung and made of âtâ, gur and ghâ. It is used at Hindu festivals. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)
- Mandha. The ceremony of hanging a piece of cloth over the place where the marriage ceremony is to take place. (Cf. mandhna, to cover)
- Måshki. Lit., a water-carrier. Also food given to a cow on the 13th day after a death, and on the date of the death according to the moon in each month, among Hindus. (Derå Ghåzi Khân.)
  Mêlâ See under káj.
- Môkh. Lit., price. During the funeral ceremonies the deceased's heirs should give furniture and clothes to an Achâryâ Brâhman to convey to the dead person in the next world, but when the donors are too poor or stingy, the Achâryâ supplies all the articles for a small sum, mökh, agreed upon, on hire, to make it appear that the articles have been actually purchased and given to him.
- Mundan. The ceremony of cutting a child's hair for the first time. Equivalent to piryôjan, q.v.
  Muth. Mûth márná is 'to send an evil-spirit

to kill an enemy.'

Nanpatri. — The shrādhā ceremony performed by a daughter's son of a sonless man for the benefit of his soul on the first day of the naurātrā after the shrādhā. (Dera Ghāzî Khān.) Cf paṭri.

Nanchhawar. — Equivalent to bel, q. v.

Nagsh. — An amulet. Also called tawiz.

Nêndar. — Equivalent to tamból. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Panj Bhîkmâ. — A fast observed by girls in honour of Dêvî, for five days, food being eaten once a day only and lamps lighted in a Dêvî temple. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Panjêlâ. — A fast observed for five days, usually in the dark half of the lunar month of Kâtik, from the Ikâdashî (11th) to the Pûranmâshi, during which no food, except the panj garbhî, is taken. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Parîchh. — Delicacies given to Brâhmans for the benefit of departed souls. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Parna. — Marriage. (Derâ Ghâzi Khân.)
Paṭṛā. — A plank of wood or a stone on which a

corpse is washed. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Paṭṛi. — The flowers, rice and a dandwan, or stick
for cleaning the mouth and teeth, placed in
front of the house on the shrādhā day by
Hindus. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Phul pankhri, an insignificant offering.

Piryôjan. — Equivalent to mundan, q. v.

Pishkara. — The worship and recitation of mantrás by the Brâhmans of both parties when the bridegroom arrives at his father-in-law's house-(Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Pran. - Soul (Sanskr.).

Prant. — A corpse (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Pura. — Sugar sent among Hindus by the husband's family to his wife in the fifth month of pregnancy. Also sweet bread roasted in ght. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân.)

Puran. - Burial, among Muhammadans.

Rakh. — A piece of paper on which figures or words are written in small squares by gurts or spiritual guides to ward off evil, among Hindus. Almost every child has a rakh enclosed in a copper, silver, or gold case, chankt or takhts, usually worn round the neck.

Rit. — The ceremony of cutting the hair of a child for the first time. It is considered sinful to cut it before this ceremonial cutting. Some families do it on the completion of the child's fifth year, but the time varies. If a second child be born before the rit of the first has been performed, then the rit of both is performed before they are five years old.

Ritan. — Pl. of rtt, custom. The first or chhott ritan is held in the fifth month of pregnancy, when salt food (pakaura) is placed in the woman's lap (jhôtt) and distributed to the brotherhood and relations. The second or bart ritan in the seventh month, when sweetened rice is similarly distributed.

Ropna. — Betrothal. Cf. sagái.

Rôtî kaurâ vaţtâ — Food given among Muhammadans by the brotherhood to the family of a deceased on the day of the death. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Roti sijh karak. — Bread given among Muhammadans after sunset, by the deceased's relatives, for the benefit of his soul for forty days after death

Sagâ. — A piece of cloth given by spiritual guides to followers as a charm. Hindus also call it bûr.

Sagai. — Betrothal. Also called ropna, vishat, sang-bandh.

Sang-bandh. - Betrothal. Cf. sagái.

Sathi. — Equivalent to chhatti, q. v.

Shagan. — (1) Omen. (2) Equivalent to chhihdura, q. v.

Sirhi. — See biwan.

Sukhrian. — Sweetmeats and clothes given to those from whom tamból is received at a wedding, among Hindus.

Suna'ani. — Lit., a thing heard. The news of a death, on hearing which the women gather together to perform the sidpd, or 'mourning,' and the men sit apart together on a blanket. Relatives and friends are expected to pay a visit of condolence, but must be dismissed after a short time to make way for others. Also jand'unt.

Sûtrâ. — A string worn on the wrist by Hindu women: a kind of silver bracelet. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Takhtt. — The case in which a rakh (q. v.) is enclosed. Equivalent to chauki, q. v.

Tarájwan. — The third visit of the bride to her father-in-law's house. (Said to be connected with tre, 'three.')

Tawiz. - See nagsh

Than. — A place where evil-spirits are supposed to play. (Hindus.)

Thandri. — Lit, cold. A festival held in Bhâdôn. Hindu women prepare cakes, sweets, and salt bread the day before, and on this day, taking a small quantity of these things, go to worship Sîtlâ Mâtâ in a mandar or Brâhman's house. Only stale food is eaten on this day, nothing fresh being cooked. This is believed to protect children from small-pox. (Ferozepur.)

Tal-wêtra. — A ceremony at marriage, when salt is placed in the hands of bridegroom and bride. (Derâ Ghâzî Khân)

Totka. — A rite to get rid of a disease or other evil, or to cause it to an enemy. E. g., if a man has fever, he rises very early and goes to a pipal tree, which he embraces. By so doing he transfers the fever to the tree.

Uchhar. — A cover or quilt. The covering put on the *Granth Sáhib* by the Sikhs. A connected word is *achhárá*, or *achhár*, the cloth spread over the body of a Muhammadan when carried to the grave. It is usually given to the grave-digger as his wage.

Vishat. — Cf. sagâ**î.** 

# MUNDAS AND DRAVIDAS.

BY STEN KONOW, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHRISTIANIA, NORWAY.

IT is now an established fact that the various tribes known as Kols, Muṇḍâs, Santals, and so forth, do not differ in anthropological features from the Dravidians. Muṇḍâs and Dravidas belong to the same race. Mr. Risley has called the type represented by those tribes Dravidian.

The languages spoken by the Dravidian race fall into two distinct groups, Dravidian and Mundâ. The Dravidian languages have been the vehicles of an old civilisation, and the most important of them are known from an early period. Our knowledge of the various Mundâ dialects, on the other hand, only dates back to the middle of the nineteenth century.

Some notes on the language of the Hos of Singbhum were published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal as early as 1840. The author was the well-known Colonel Tickell. The indefatigable Hodgson also extended his investigations to the Mundâ dialects. In his paper on the Aborigines of Central India in the Bengal Journal for 1848, he communicated vocabularies of Bhumij, Mundârî, Ho, and Santâlî. He considered those dialects as Tamulian, and, together with Kurukh, as "dialects of the great Kol language."

Mr. J. R. Logan, in the Journal of the Indian Archipelago for 1852 and 1853, also considered the Mundâ dialects as Dravidian. He says:—

"The Kol is Dravidian considerably modified by ultra Indo-Gangetic, particularly in its glossary, and very slightly by Tibetan. The latter element is so small as to render it certain that the Kol was originally a pure Dravidian language, which was deeply influenced by the ancient Mon-Gangetic. The phonetic basis of the language and many particles and words are Dravidian, but the pronouns, several of the numerals, and a large portion of the words, are Mon-Anam."

The first who clearly distinguished between the Muṇḍâ and Dravidian languages was Prof. Max Müller in his Letter to Chevalier Bunsen on the Classification of the Turanian Languages. He states that he is unable to see any coincidences between Santâlî, Muṇḍârî, Bhumi], and Ho on one side and the Dravidian dialects on the other. In the former dialects he sees "traces of a language spoken in India before the Tamulian conquest." That old language he calls Muṇḍâ, and I have retained that denomination, because it will be adopted in the Linguistic Survey, and is far more suitable than the phantastical Kolarian proposed by Sir George Campbell.

Max Müller's view that the Mundâ and Dravidian languages belong to different philological families has been adopted by most scholars in Europe. The Revd. Ferd. Hahn, on the other hand, in his Kurukh Grammar, Calcutta, 1900, tried to show "that the Mundârî grammar bears a gennine Dravidian stamp on its brow." Mundârî is a typical Mundâ language, and if Mr. Hahn's view is correct, we must infer that the Mundâ and Dravidian languages are related to each other. The question is of some importance, and I have therefore thought it worth while to examine Mr. Hahn's arguments.

In the first place, he gives a list of words which are common to Mundari and Kurukh. The list contains several Aryan loan-words, and also some comparisons which do not correctly represent the real state of affairs. Thus Mundari enga, mother, is compared with Kurukh ingyô. The latter word, however, means "my mother," and ing is the personal pronoun of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Rev. L. Skrefsrnd has proposed to call the family Kherwarian, and that name has been adopted by Prof. Thomsen of Copenhagen. Kherwar is used in the traditionary tales of the Santals as a common designation of the Santals, Mundas, Hos, Bhumij, and Birhor. It does not, however, include the western and southern tribes such as Korkû, Juâng, Khariâ, Savara, and Gadaba, and I cannot therefore see the advantage of adopting it for the whole family. — S. K.

first person singular. Moreover, a comparison of the vocabularies of Muṇḍârî and Kurukh cannot prove anything whatever, because it is a well-known fact that the former has largely influenced the latter. The comparison would have to be extended to other languages of both families, and even in that case it would not prove much. Dravidas and Muṇḍâs must have had early intercourse with each other, as well as with the Aryans; and coincidences between them in vocabulary cannot prove any philological connexion, just as we do not class the Aryan dialects with the Dravidians on account of their having several words in common.

Mr. Hahn himself does not appear to attach much importance to the correspondence in vocabulary, and I therefore pass at once to his principal arguments which are based on an assumed correspondence in grammar. It will, however, not be sufficient to confine ourselves to those features which have been discussed by Mr. Hahn. It will be necessary to extend the comparison of Muṇḍâ and Dravidian grammar so as to comprise the most characteristic features of both.

Phonology. — The phonetical system of both families differs in many important characteristics. It is much more complicated in the Mundâ languages than in Dravidian.

The vowels are mainly the same in both, though the Mundas possess some shades of pronunciation which do not appear to exist in Dravidian. Thus the short a in Dravidian is pronounced as the u in English 'but.' The Munda a is usually the short sound corresponding to the a in 'father.' It also has, however, another sound, which is much more indistinct. It can be compared with the short indistinct e in French quatre-vingt, but is pronounced much farther back.

The Dravidian e has only one sound, that of e in English 'ember.' Santâlî e, on the other hand, has two, or rather four, different sounds. It is sometimes pronounced as the a in English 'hat,' and sometimes as the short sound corresponding to the e in German 'Segen.' There are, besides, two neutral vowels corresponding to the two full e-sounds.

Similar remarks can be made with regard to o, and so forth.

The vowels of consecutive syllables in Santâlî are made to agree with each other according to a well-defined law. If one syllable contains an open sound, the vowel of the other syllables must also be open, and vice versā. Thus, san-âk', go; but hoy-ok', become. In those instances  $\ddot{a}$  denotes the open e-sound of a in "hat," and  $\ddot{a}$  the open sound of o in "hot."

E and o are changed to i and u, respectively, when the following syllable contains an i. Thus, kora, boy; kuri, girl: bheda, a ram; bhidi, a ewe.

It will be seen that these changes are quite different from the interchange between i and u in some Telugu and Canarese suffixes.

With regard to consonants, it should be noted that the Mundâ languages possess complete sets of soft and hard consonants, with and without aspiration. Thus Santâlî has k, kh, g, gh, and corresponding series of palatals, cerebrals, dentals, and labials. The Dravidian languages, on the other hand, are mostly devoid of aspirates, and even the unaspirated sounds are not freely used, but interchange according to fixed rules.

Moreover, the Mundâ languages possess another set of consonants, or rather semi-consonants, which are usually written k', ch', t', and p'.

"These sounds are not pronounced like other consonants by successively 'closing and opening,' and allowing the breath to touch the respective organs at their reopening, but by partly inhaling the breath and simultaneously closing the throat and the respective organs, and not allowing the breath to touch them at their reopening, but letting it pass unarrested out of the throat: thus an abrupt half consonant is produced." (Skrefsrud.)

The semi-consonants can accordingly be described as checked consonants without the off-glide.

Those sounds are almost exclusively used at the end of words. It will be seen that their existence is in thorough disagreement with the phonetical laws prevailing in Dravidian. In those latter forms of speech the common tendency is to protract the off-glide of final consonants so that it becomes a short indistinct vowel.

The phonetical systems of the Muṇḍà and Dravidian forms of speech differ also in other respects. Thus the semi-vowels y and w are in the Muṇḍâ languages only used in order to avoid the hiatus between concurrent vowels, and there is nothing to correspond to the many cerebral r and l sounds of the Dravidian languages. There is only one cerebral r in addition to the ordinary r, and one l-sound.

The difference in phonetical system is of some importance, because we often find that even languages which have nothing to do with each other agree phonetically when they are spoken in the same neighbourhood.

Formation of words. — The Mundâ languages, like the Dravidian ones, make use of suffixes in order to form new words from already existing bases. The Mundâ suffixes are, however, almost exclusively pronominal, and the Mundâ languages do not, so far as I can see, possess anything which corresponds to the various formative additions of the Dravidian forms of speech. On the other hand, the infixes which play so great a rôle in the formation of Mundâ words, are not a feature of Dravidian grammar. The Mon-khmêr languages, on the other hand, and the dialects spoken by the aboriginal tribes of the Malay Peninsula, in this respect agree with Mundâ.

Nouns. — Dravidian nouns can be divided into two classes, those that denote rational beings, and those that denote irrational beings respectively. These classes differ in the formation of the plural, and partly also in the declension of the singular. Moreover, such nouns as denote rational beings often have different forms to denote male and female individuals, respectively. Compare Tamil magan, son; magal, daughter. There is, however, some uncertainty as to whether this latter feature is originally Dravidian. The facts are as follows.

Tamil, Malayalam, and Canarese, have different forms for the masculine and feminine singular of such nouns as denote rational beings, the so-called high-caste nouns. In the plural, on the other hand, both genders have the same form, but differ from such nouns as denote irrational beings and things. The latter class of nouns I shall hereafter call neater. The suffixes of the masculine and feminine singular are an and al, respectively.

Brâhûî does not distinguish the genders, even in the case of rational beings. Most other languages of the family, Kurukh, Malto, Kui, Gôṇḍĩ, Kôlâmî, and Telugu, have no feminine singular, but use the neuter form instead. Kui and Gôrdî also use the neuter gender in the feminine plural of high-caste nouns.

There are, however, several indications which make it probable that a separate feminine singular is an old feature of the Dravidian languages.

Kumârila Bhaṭṭa (probably 7th century A. D.) mentions d! as a stri-pratyaya, i.e., feminine suffix. Bishop Caldwell further compares the Tamil suffix a! with the termination in Telugu kôdalu, daughter-in-law; Kui kudli, a Kui woman, and also with Telugu ddu, female. Compare, however, Kurukh dli, woman. Traces of a feminine suffix dl or âr are also occasionally met with in Gônḍî verbal forms such as mandâl, she, or it, is; kiâr, she, or it, does. Telugu forms such as dbide and âme, she; okate, one woman, also point to the conclusion that the distinction of the masculine and feminine genders is not an innovation of Tamil and Canarese.

The state of affairs in Munda is quite different. Here we find the difference of nouns denoting animate beings and inanimate objects, quite a different system of classification, pervading the whole grammatical system. The plural, however, is formed by means of the same suffixes in both classes. There are no different forms used to denote the masculine and feminine genders. Couplets such as kora, boy; kuri, girl, are formed under Aryan influence.

Dravidian languages have two numbers, the singular and the plural. In Mundâ there is, in addition to those two, also a dual.

The cases are formed according to widely different principles in both classes. The Dravidian languages possess an accusative and a dative, as the cases of the direct and indirect object. In the Muṇḍâ languages, on the other hand, there are no such cases. The direct and indirect objects are expressed by means of pronominal infixes in the verb. Mr. Hahn, it is true, states that the dative-suffix is practically the same in Muṇḍârî and Kurukh, viz., kê and gê, respectively. Now there are in fact some corrupt forms of Muṇḍârî in which the Aryan suffix kê is used to denote the dative and the accusative. That is, however, only the case where the language has come so much under Aryan influence that it begins to abandon the most characteristic Muṇḍâ features. Mr. Hahn was probably not aware of this fact. His study of Muṇḍâ dialects has apparently been limited to Nottrott's Muṇḍârî grammar, which is very far from giving a reliable account of the language. Even a philologist might have been mistaken under such circumstances.

Mr. Hahn further compares the ablative suffixes Kurukh ti and Mundari te. The comparison does not, of course, prove anything whatever. The similarity is probably accidental. The Kurukh suffix has two forms ti and nti, and the latter is probably the original one. Compare Tamil indru, Kôravâ inde, Canarese inda, &c.

The case suffixes are, in Dravidian languages, commonly added to a modified base, the so-called oblique base, in the singular. The oblique base has various forms, and we can, with some right, distinguish different declensions according to the different additions used in order to form it. There is no such thing as an oblique base in the Mundâ languages, and all nouns are treated in exactly the same way.

Adjectives. — Mr. Hahn remarks that adjectives are of the same character in Kurukh and Mundari. True, but the same is for instance the case in Indo-Aryan and Tibeto-Burman languages. Most agglutinating languages form their adjectives in the same way, and correspondence in that respect cannot seriously be urged as a test of philological connexion.

Numerals. — There is no connexion between the numerals in both families. Mr. Hahn, it is true, compares Mundâ mit, moyat, one, with Kurukh mundtâ, first. Compare Tamil mudal, Telugu modața, first. The comparison is, however, based on insufficient knowledge of the nature of the Mundâ semi-consonants. It is of course quite possible that some word for "first," "beginning," might be common to Dravidas and Mundâs. Even in that case, however, it would be rash to infer a common origin for the languages of both. They must have had intercourse with each other from a very ancient date, and must certainly have borrowed from each other.

Higher numbers are formed in a different way in both families. The Dravidas count in tens; the Mundâs in twenties.

Pronouns. — Also the pronouns differ in most points. Attention has often been drawn to the fact that both families possess a double set of the plural of the personal pronoun of the first person, one including, and one excluding the party addressed. I have already pointed out in another paper (see above, Vol. XXXII. p. 458) that the state of affairs in Dravidian languages points to the conclusion that the Dravidas may have adopted this grammatical feature from without, i. e., probably from the Mundâs. Even if the double set originally belongs to both

families, that cannot prove much. The same peculiarity is found in many other languages. The forms in actual use among Muṇḍâs and Draviḍas are, moreover, quite different. Mr. Hahn, it is true, compares Kurukh én, oblique eng with Muṇḍârî in, I; Kurukh ékā, with Muṇḍârî oko, who? He forgets, however, that a comparison of other dialects shows that the Dravidian base of the pronoun "I" is é or né, while the characteristic element of the Muṇḍâ form is  $\tilde{n}$ ; the base of the Dravidian interrogative pronoun is  $y\hat{a}$  or é, but the corresponding Muṇḍâ form is aka.

No sane philologist would, of course, draw any conclusion from the fact that the Mundâ languages, like the Dravidian ones, have no relative pronoun. The same is the case in so many quite different families of languages that it can almost be represented as the rule, the development of a real relative pronoun being considered as the exception.

Verbs. — Every trace of analogy between the Mundâ and Dravidian families disappears when we proceed to consider the verbs. Mr. Hahn, it is true, compares quite a series of suffixes in Mundârî and Kurukh. It is not, however, necessary to show in detail all the mistakes he has made in those comparisons. None of them would have been possible if he had really known Mundârî. I shall take two typical examples.

The suffix of the present tense in Kurukh is da; thus, én es-da-n, I break. The final n of es-da-n is the pronominal suffix of the first person singular. Mr. Hahn, however, does not hesitate to compare dan, the tense suffix plus the personal termination, with the Mundarî copula tan, which corresponds to Santâlî kan, and is used to form a present, not, however, as a tense suffix but as an auxiliary.

Mr. Hahn further compares what he calls the perfect suffixes Muṇcânî jan-d, Kurukh jan. Muṇcânî jan-d contains the tense suffix jan and the so-called categorical a. We need only consider the former. Jan corresponds to Santâlî en and is the suffix of the simple past passive. The final n is kept through all persons and numbers. Kurukh jan is the suffix of the first person singular feminine of the past tense. It is apparently only used in such verbs as end in n. The initial j has developed from a ch, and the final n is the personal termination.

I hope that it is not necessary to show in detail that Mr. Hahn's remaining comparisons are just as superficial.

On the other hand, the whole conjugational system is quite different in the Dravidian and Muṇḍâ languages. The Dravidian system, is very simple, only comprising two or three tenses; in Muṇḍâ, on the other hand, we find an almost bewildering muster of conjugational forms. The Dravidian verb can be characterised as a noun of agency; the Muṇḍâ verb and its various tense bases are indefinite forms which can be used as nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The most characteristic features of the Muṇḍâ verb, the categorical a and the incorporation of the direct and indirect object in the verb, are in entire disagreement with Dravidian principles. The Muṇḍâ languages, on the other hand, do not possess anything to correspond to the Dravidian negative conjugation.

I hope that the preceding remarks will have shown that Mr. Hahn's arguments for the hypothesis of a common origin of the Muṇḍâ and Dravidian families are quite insufficient. The analogies which can be said to exist between both families are of a general kind, and such as can be traced between most languages of the earth.

Mr. Hahn is of opinion that there can be no doubt about the classing of Mundârî as belonging to the Dravidian family. I think it would be easy to show, with just as good arguments, that Mundârî is a Negro language, or a Indo-Chinese form of speech, or what not. It is time to protest energetically against the tendency, which appears to be gaining ascendancy, of combining different languages on the score of accidental similarity in unessential features.

### RAMABHADRA-DIKSHITA AND THE SOUTHERN POETS OF HIS TIME.

BY T. S. KUPPUSWAMI SASTRI; TANJORE.

Râmabhadra-Dîrshita is well known to students of Sanskrit literature as the author of the Jânakîpariṇaya, the first drama read by the majority of students in the indigenous Sanskrit schools of Southern India. This drama has repeatedly been printed in Telngu and in Grantha characters at Madras and in Dêvanâgarî at Bombay. It is known also among those who do not read Sanskrit through its translations into Tamil, Malayâlam, Marâthî and other vernacular languages. Even its translations in some of the South-Indian vernaculars have been more than once prescribed as text-books for University examinations in the Madras Presidency. But like most other Indian publications this work never issued from the press with any account of its author. I therefore wrote a short Sanskrit memoir of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita as a preface to his Patañjalicharita when I despatched a Nâgarî transcript of it for publication in the Kâvyamâlâ in 1894. This account was based on facts collected from written records, which, though few, could be safely relied on. The present paper is little more than a reproduction in English of what I have already published in Sanskrit.

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita, the author of the Jânakîparinaya-nâṭaka, was a great South-Indian poet and grammarian. He was born in the family of Chaturvêda-Yajvan in the village of Kanḍaramanikyam near Kumbhakônam in the Tanjore district, as testified to by the subjoined verse of the Sringâratilakabhâna composed by the poet:—

## यश्चतुर्वेदयज्वेन्द्रवंदावारिधिकौस्तुभः । यस्य कण्डरमाणिक्यग्रामो भवति जन्मभूः ॥ ६ ॥

This village, which is now almost in ruins, had once a very high reputation as the birth-place of distinguished Sanskrit scholars. Of these were: (1) Dharmarâjâdhvarîndra, the author of the Vêdântaparibhâshâ and Tarkachûdâmaṇi; (2) his son Râmakrishṇa, the author of the Vêdântasikhâmaṇi and Nyâyaśikhâmaṇi; (3) Vaidyanâtha-Dîkshita, the author of the Smritimuktâphala and of the Dîpikâ, a commentary on the Râmâyaṇa; (4) his son Sivarâma-Dîkshita, the author of a compendium of the Smritimuktâphala called Âhnika, from which the following verse is taken:—

निजधर्मनिरूढमानसानां स्मृतिमुक्ताफलवीक्षणेऽलसानाम् । शिवराममखी हिताह्मिकाग्र्यं कुरुतेऽसी भिषगीशयज्वसूनुः ॥

(5) the pious Chokkanātha-Dîkshita, the author of the Sabdakaumudī and Bhāshyaratnāvalī mentioned in the sequel as the preceptor and father-in-law of Rāmabhadra; (6) Ranganātha-Yajvan, a kinsman of Rāmabhadra-Dîkshita and the author of the Manjarīmakaranda, a commentary on Haradattamiśra's Padamanjarī; (7) Nallā-Dîkshita, the author of the beautiful drama Subhadrāpariṇaya, the Sringārasarvasvabhāṇa and the Parimala, a commentary on his own Advaitarasamanjarī.

जयित किल चोलमण्डलमण्डनमुद्दण्डपण्डिताध्युषितम् । कण्डरमाणिक्यमिति ख्यातं महदग्रहारमाणिक्यम् ॥ ६ ॥ असौ तत्र श्रीमानमृतरसधारासहचरीं गिरां देवीं बिश्रद्रजमुखकृपातः परिणताम् । सपर्यासन्तुष्यहुरूपरिवृद्धानुग्रहपरि-स्फुरत्प्रत्यग्ज्योतिर्जयति किल नल्लाबुधमणिः ॥ ७॥

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बालचन्द्रमखीन्द्रस्य तनयो विनयोज्ज्वलः । स भाणं प्राणयद्वालये सल्युर्वचनगौरवात् ॥ ९ ॥

Śringarasarvasvabhana.

प्रबन्धा यस्योवीं तिलक्षयति नङ्काकविरिति प्रतीतः प्रागल्भ्यं दधदिखलतन्त्रेष्विप समम् । मनोवास्तव्यश्रीगजवदनदानाम्बुलहरी-विवर्तैर्वाग्गुम्भैर्विहरणनिकेतीकृतमुखः ॥ ३॥

Subhadraparinaya.

नहासुधीनिबद्धेयमद्वैतरसमञ्जरी ।
कर्णावतंसपदवीं विबुधैरिधरोप्यताम् ॥
इति श्रीकौद्यिककुलजलिधचन्द्रश्रीबालचन्द्रदीक्षिततनूभवस्य श्रीमत्प-

रमहंसपरिवाजकाचार्यश्रीपरमिशिवेन्द्रपादश्रीसदाशिवब्रह्मपूज्यपादानुग्र-हभाजनस्य श्रीनङाकवेः कृतिषु स्वकृताया अद्देतरसमञ्जर्या व्याख्या परिमलाख्या संपूर्णा ॥

Parimala.

(8) Srînivâsa alias Ikkiri Appâ-Sâstrin, afterwards known by the name of Pûrnânanda-Yati, the author of the *Prâyaśchittadipikā* and *Upagranthadipa*, and the pupil of Brahmânanda-Sarasvatî.

श्रीमत्कण्डरमाणिक्यप्रयागकुलजन्मना । श्रीनिवासेन हि कृता प्रायश्वित्तपदीपिका ॥ उपग्रन्थस्य दीपोऽयं श्रीनिवासेन निर्मितः । षष्टस्तु पटलस्तत्न प्रायश्वित्तं समापितम् ॥

Upagranthadipa.1

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita was a Rigvêdi Brâhmana of the Kaundinya gôtra and Âśvalâyana sûtra. This follows from the drama Râghavâbhyudaya by Bhagavantarâya, a contemporary of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita and the youngest brother of Narasimha, the minister of Ékôji of the Marâtha dynasty of Tanjore.

पारिपार्श्विकः—विद्यमानेषु प्राचामभिरूपकेषु कथं नूतनप्रणीते तस्मिन्नेवं परिषदो बहुमानः ।

For further information about this Śriniyasa, see extracts from his son's Upagranthabhashya below.

## सूत्रधारः—तदेतस्त्रत्यग्रपतञ्जलिना द्वितीयप्राचेतसेन कुण्डिनकुलमण्डनेन रामभद्राध्वरी-न्द्रेण विमृइय सिहारःश्लाघमनुमोदितमिति । तथा चोक्तम्

मिलदिलक्षलभालीधूतमङ्कीमतङ्की-गिलतनवमधूलीधूलिकेलीसखीभिः। भिणतिभिरनघाभिभीरतीकर्णपूरं स्थयति भगवन्तस्त्र्यम्बकार्यानुजन्मा॥

Bhagavantarâya's Raghavabhyudayanataka.

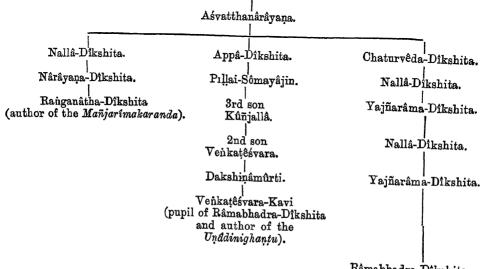
Again, in the land-grant of Sâhajirâjapuram for the support of learned pandits by Sâhaji I., a description of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita is given in the following terms in Marâṭhi: — "Four shares were given to Râmabhadra-Dîkshita, a Rigvêdi Brâhmaṇa of the Kauṇḍinya gôtra and Âśvalâyana sûtra, son of Yajñarâma-Dîkshita and grandson of Nallâ-Dîkshita."

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita was the eldest of the four sons of Yajñarâma-Dîkshita and a kinsman of Ranganâtha-Yajvan, already mentioned as a native of Kandaramânikyam.

यो नारायणदीक्षितस्य नप्ता नह्यादीक्षितसूरिणस्तु पौतः ।
श्रीनारायणदीक्षितेन्द्रपुत्रो व्याख्यामेषां (?) हि रङ्गनाथयज्वा ॥
मातामहो यस्य च दाब्दपारभाष्यार्थवेत्ता खलु मातुलश्च ।
अपेतलज्जेन हि तेन केनचित्मकाइयतेऽसौ पदमञ्जरी खरा ॥
श्रीचोलदेदो सुधियो बृहस्पतेस्तुल्यास्त्रयः पञ्च गृहे गृहे बुधाः ।
वसन्ति तेषां धुरि मत्कृतिस्तथा विभाति कीटो रविसंनिधौ यथा ॥
जगन्मण्डलविख्यातो यश्चतुर्वेददीक्षितः ।
अस्मत्पितृपितृव्यश्च वन्दे तच्चरणाम्बुजम् ॥

Manjarimakaranda.

The following pedigree clearly shows his relationship to the latter: — Bhûminallâ.



Râmabhadra-Dîkshita (author of the *Janakiparinaya*, &c.) There is no descendant in the male line of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita, as his son Vaidyanâtha-Dîkshita died childless. His vernacular was Tamil. His father was a man of moderate circumstances. His preceptor, Chokkanâtha-Dîkshita, who was better circumstanced, brought him up from a boy and bestowed great care on his education. In due time he became an adept in all the six daršanas. He made a critical study of the whole of the Mahâbhâshya under his preceptor, as is known by the following passages:—

फणिग्रामणिवाग्गुम्फप्राणनाडयदुक्तये । कलये राब्दकौमुद्याः कवये गुरवे नमः ॥

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's Shaddaréanisiddhântasaingraha.

अमत्युपिकयसमस्तपदमबोध-विश्राणनोपकृतिनिस्तुलितानुकम्पम् । रोषं द्वितीयमिव शाब्दिकसार्वभौमं श्रीचोक्कनाथमखिनं गुरुमानतोशस्म ॥

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's commentary on the Paribhāshāvṛitti.²

The subjoined extract from Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's Sringaratilakabhana shows that Chokkanâtha not only taught him Sanskrit grammar thoroughly, but also gave his eldest daughter to him in marriage.

स एवायं यस्मै किल निखिलविद्वज्ञनश्चाघनीयवैदुष्यशालिनी वदावदिश-ध्यसहस्रविभाव्यमाननिजप्रभावाः श्रीतधर्मा इव मूर्तिमन्तस्तत्रभवन्तश्चोकः-नाथमिखप्रवरा वितीर्णवन्तोऽपि प्रथमामात्मकन्यामन्यामिव पुनरिप स्नेहेन निरवद्यां वितरन्ति स्म पदिवद्याम् ।

His proficiency in Vyûkaraṇa was exceptionally high and he was often called Pratyagra-Patañjali, i. e. 'the modern Patañjali,' by his contemporaries.

Chokkanātha-Dîkshita, the poet's father-in-law, was a pious Chhândôga Brâhmaṇa of the Saunaka gôtra and Drâhyâyaṇa sûtra. His father was Dvâdaśâhayâji Nârâyaṇa-Dîkshita and his mother Gaṇapati. This sounds rather strange as the name of a woman. But that she actually bore the name Gaṇapati is evident from the subjoined passages.

धातारं सूत्रकारं शिवनुतिसुहितं पाणिनिं वाक्यकारं विष्णुं कात्यायनं तं गिरिशमहिवराधीश्वरं भाष्यकारम् । तातं नारायणं श्रीमणपितमपि तां मातरं सादरं ता-नाचार्यान् सर्वतन्त्रप्रयमनिपुणानानमेः कर्म कुर्मः ।। नमः श्रीद्वादशाहादियाजिने सोमयाजिने । महाभाष्यमहाम्भोधिसेत्वे गुरवे नमः ॥

Bháshyaratnávalí by Chokkanâtha-Dîkshita.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also the passage from his pupil Venkatêśyara-Kayı's commentary on Patañjalicharita, quoted below.
<sup>5</sup> Compare the speech of the Sûtradhâra quoted on p. 128 above from Bhagavantarâya's Râghavâbhyudaya-nâjaka.

शिवं गणपतिं चाम्बां द्वादशाहादियाजिनम् । तातं नारायणं नत्वा धातुपाठं समारभे ॥

इति संचारिभाष्यश्रीद्वादशाहादियाजिनः ।
पुत्रेण चेकिनाथेनादादिः पद्येरलंकृतः ॥
धातुरत्नावलिरियं चेकिनाथिवपश्चिता ।
रिचता धार्यते येन स सर्वत्न विजेजिते ॥

Dháturatnávalí by Chokkanátha-Díkshita.

Nor is this the only instance of this name being given to a woman in that family. Even to this day instances can be quoted from families connected with Chokkanâtha's descendants. Chokkanâtha-Dîkshita, the author of the Kântimatîparinayanâṭaka and of the Rasavilâsa-bhâṇa, should not be mistaken for the poet's father-in-law. As will be seen from the following extracts, the author of the Kântimatîparinayanâṭaka lived at a much later period. He was the fifth son of Tippâ-Dîkshita, one of the donees of sarvamânya lands, i. e., lands free of all taxes, in the village of Sahajimahârâjapuram alias Tiruviśainallûr, and the youngest brother of Kuppâ-Dîkshita, who was likewise a donee of that village.

सूत्रधारः — नेता ग्राहमहीन्द्री नाटकमितिचित्रसंविधानमिदम् ।
एषा सभा रसज्ञा कविरिप चास्यैष चोक्कनाथसुधीः ॥
पारिपार्श्विकः — जानाम्येतं रसविलासाख्यभाणस्य कवियतिति ॥

सूत्रधारः सकलकलास्वपि निपुणो नरसाम्बाविमलगर्भसंभूतः । तिप्पाध्वरीन्द्रतनयः शाहमहाराजपुरकृतावासः ॥

पास्पिार्श्विकः — तर्हि सक्छकछावञ्चभस्य कुप्पाध्वरिणो वादकेसरिण-स्तिरुमछशास्त्रिणश्च कनीयानिति वक्तव्यम् ।

सूत्रधारः - देशित्रावाभ्यस्तसकलज्ञास्त्रयोः स्वामिज्ञास्त्रिसीताराम-ज्ञास्त्रिणोरिप ।

Kûntimatîparinayandtaka.

Further, the author of the Kântimatîparinayanâṭaka was a Brâhmaṇa of the Bhâradvâja gôtra and Âśvalâyana sûtra and a student of the Rigvêda. He was a Telugu Brâhmaṇa, as may be seen from his mother's name Narasâmbâ—a name to be met with only among the women of that community in the South. His pedigree is as follows:—

Kuppadhvarin, Tirumala-Sastrin, Syami-Sastrin, Sîtarama-Sastrin, Chokkanatha,

The subjoined passage from his Sringaratilakabhana shows that Ramabhadra-Dikshita was also the pupil of Nilakantha-Dikshita, well known for his simple, lucid style of composition and for his most popular works, Nilakanthavijaya, Kelividambana, Nalacharitantiaha and several others.

 \* नीलकण्डमिखनां सदिस सकृत्यविष्टस्यापि समुझसित सरसपदस-न्दर्भवैदग्धी । अस्य पुनः कवेस्तदीयिश्चित्यस्य विशिष्य तद्भजनानुरक्तस्य किमु वक्तव्यम् ।

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's Sringdratilakabhana.

His Nilakan! havijaya is dated

## अष्टतिशादुपस्कृतसप्तशाधिकचतुःसहस्रेषु । कलिवर्षेषु गतेषु प्रथितः किल नीलकण्ठविजयोश्यम् ॥

Nîlakantha-Dîkshita's Nîlakanthaviiayachampûkâvya.

i. e., in the Kali year 4738, corresponding to A. D. 1638, and thus enables us to fix approximately the date of his disciple Ramabhadra-Dikshita. It was at the instance of Nilakantha-Dikshita that our poet wrote his Ramabanastava.

### यो रामस्य च नीलकण्डमखिना बाणस्तवं कारितः।

Patanjalicharitavyákhyána by Venkatêśvara-Kavi.

The subjoined pedigree of Nîlakantha-Dîkshita is based on the extracts printed below it: -

Âchârya-Dîkshita. | | Rangarâja-Makhin.

Appaya-Dîkshita (A. D. 1554-1626).

Âchâ-Dîkshita.

Nârâyaṇa-Dîkshita, married Bhûmidêvî.

2nd son Nîlakantha-Dîkshita (A. D. 1637).

आसेतुबन्धतटमा च तुषारशैलादाचार्यदीक्षित इति प्रथिताभिधानम् । अद्देतचिन्मयमहाम्बुधिमग्नभावमस्मत्यितामहमशेषगुरुं प्रपद्ये ॥

यं ब्रह्मनिश्चितिधयः प्रवदन्ति साक्षात्पड्दीनाद्यखिलदर्शनपारभाजम् । तं सर्ववेदसमशेषबुधाधिराजं श्रीरद्भराजमिखनं पितरं प्रपद्ये ।।

Harivanísasáracharitavyákhyána by Appaya-Dîkshita.

विद्वद्वरोविहितविश्वजिद्व्वरस्य श्रीसर्वतोमुखमहाव्रतयाजिसूनोः । श्रीरङ्कराजमिखनः श्रितचन्द्रमौलिरस्त्यप्यदीक्षित इति प्रथितस्तनूजः ॥

Siddhântalesasangraha by Appaya-Dîkshita.

<sup>\*</sup> This is the second pada of the verse from the same work quoted below.

मुनिरस्ति भरद्वाजः ख्यातस्त्रिभुवनेष्विप ।
अन्नैर्यस्य जही रामोऽप्यरण्यभ्रमणश्रमम् ॥
तस्यान्वये महत्यासीन्क्षीरोद इव चन्द्रमाः ।
श्रीकण्ठचरणासक्तः श्रीमानप्ययदीक्षितः ॥
श्रीकण्ठदेशिकग्रन्थसिद्धान्तद्योतचन्द्रिका ।
श्रीमती निर्मिता येन शिवार्कमणिदीपिका ॥
तत्समानप्रभावस्य तदनन्तरजन्मनः ।
आसीदाचादीक्षितस्य पुत्रो नारायणाध्वरी ॥
जयन्ति तनयास्तस्य पञ्च सौभात्रशालिनः ।
गर्भदासा महेशस्य कवयश्च विपश्चितः ॥
तेषामहं द्वितीयोऽस्म भूमिदेवीतनूभुवाम् ।
नीलकण्ठ इति ख्यातिं नीतः श्वाम्भोः प्रसादतः ॥

Gangavataranakavya by Nîlakantha-Dîkshita.

Râmabhadra-Dîkshita was a pupil of Bâlakrishna-Bhagavatpâda in the Vêdûnta philosophy.

यस्यानुप्रहृदृष्टिमर्पयति च श्रीबालकृष्णो गुरुः सोऽयं दीव्यति चोकनाथमखिनामक्रीतदासः कविः।

Jánakiparinayanátaka.

Though Ramabhadra-Dikshita was born in the village of Kandaramanikyam, he afterwards removed from that village and became permanently settled in Sahajirajapuram alias Tiruvisainallur in A. D. 1693. It was after he took his permanent residence in this village that he wrote his commentary on the Paribhashavritti entitled Paribhashavrittivyakhyana.

सतां तेनार्षिते राज्ञा शाहराजपुराभिधे । अयहारे स्थितिमता रामभद्रेण यज्वना ॥ पाणिनेः परिभाषाणां वृत्तिर्व्याख्यायतेऽधुना । इदं शृण्वन्तु करुणां विधायास्मिन्विपश्चितः ॥

Râmabhadra-Dikshita's Paribhashavrittivyakhyana.

A beautiful description of this village, which is situated on the banks of the river Kâvêrî at a distance of about four miles from Kumbhakôṇam, is given in the *Dharmavijaya*, a *Champú-kâvya* by Bhûminâtha-Kavi, a pupil of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita.

असौ धर्मपुरुषः परिक्रम्य क्रमेण निषेवितनिखिलपुण्यक्षेत्रो विलोचनरसायनी-कृताभिरूपतराग्रहारपरम्परः कुतूहलेन चोलमहीमहनीयभूषणायमानं ग्राहराजपुरमुप-गम्य सम्यगानन्दादन्तरेवमचिन्तयत् मन्दस्पन्दिदलोह्नसत्फलभरव्यानम्ररम्भावनी-खेलद्वालद्याकानुकारितबुधव्याख्यानवाक्यक्रमः । एषो दोषमिदं निरस्य सहसा महैन्यमन्यादृदां इन्तानन्दभरं तनोति विबुधग्रामोऽभिरामो हृदि ॥

विद्वत्सहस्रपरिघुष्टसमस्तविद्याघोषेण भित्तिषु दिशां मुखरीकृतेन । एकेन्द्रनन्दनयशोजयडिण्डिमाख्या व्याख्यायते हि मुहुरत्र महाग्रहारे ॥

अयमखिललोकप्रशंसाप्रथमपदमग्रहारः स्वयमुचितज्ञशेखरेण शाहमहीन्द्रेण नानादिगन्तरतः क्रमेण सप्रयत्नसमुपानीतैरुज्ज्वलतरतेजःशालिभिस्त्रासलेशराहितैः सुवृत्तैरत्यर्घपात्रभूतैः सकलदर्शनाभिनन्दनीयैर्विद्यन्मणिभिराभिगुम्भितश्चोलभूपरिष्कारो-ग्रहारः । \* \* \* \* \* ! अत्र खलु विचित्रचरित्रपवित्रीकृतधरित्री-लोकाः सकलविद्यास्वनवद्यवैशद्यहृद्या मितमन्तमन्तेवासिनमध्यापयन्तो निश्चलवृत्तयो विपश्चितः परिष्कुर्वते सर्वतो बहिवेदीम् ।

स किल जगित रोषः ख्यातमेधाविरोषः पटुवदनसहस्रेणैव यं व्याचकार । विरादयति सुखेनैकेन सर्व तमर्थं करबदरिवासौ देशिकः शाब्दिकानाम् ॥ चिन्तामणिप्रभृतिभूरिगभीरभावप्रन्थान्तरस्थवनवाक्यशिलाविभेदान् । वाक्चिन्द्रकाविसरणैः सरसीकरोति नैयायिकेन्दुरिह सैष जगत्प्रकाशः ॥

> श्रुतिवचनगोचराभिवाग्धाटीभिनिर्गलाभिरसौ । मीमांसते ध्वरमहो जैमिनिरिव मूर्तिमानहो धर्मान् ।। वेदान्तिवन्ध्यविषिने दुरासदे मन्दवैभवैरितरैः । विहरति विद्वत्सिहस्तदीयवृद्धिनिदानमित एषः ॥

अधुना किल नानादिगन्तवास्तव्यागन्तुकपण्डितजनिश्चरःकम्पाभिनन्द्यमानकक्रीमहाग्रन्थममेभेदनालंकभीणिवबुधकुञ्जरसमिन्नतः शिष्यजनप्रतिज्ञाप्रक्रान्तवक्रेतरवादाटोपिवकटभुकुटीविलोकनिवस्मेरोदारतरुणीविविलितमुखचन्द्रमञ्जलरुचिपुञ्जरञ्जितवीध्यन्तरो व्यवहारपिरच्छेदनेच्छासमागतजानपदजनिवादानुयोगचहुलकक्षपुटन्यस्तपुस्तकमाणवकविराजितश्छालजनिवजुम्भितमान्यतरोपन्यासविलेखनकृतोच्छोगसमागतवेदेशिकग्रन्थकृत्सूरिनिविरीसो महाकविवितीर्णभोसलवंशावतंसयशःपशस्तिसमस्यापूरणाहमहामकाप्रवृत्तसत्तरनानाविधोञ्जेखसमाहितच्छालजनपरिस्तिमितमुखावलोकनानन्दमन्थरान्तरविद्दद्रून्दः कदलीपद्रमिथ्यापुस्तकहस्तनाटितशिष्यभावसवयःपरिवृतव्याख्यातृताभिनयकमनीयानुपनीतचतुरवालकविलसितविद्दद्रूहवहिवेदिकाकोणः कोशगृहं सार-

स्वतसर्वस्वस्य जन्मभूमिः श्रोतस्मार्तकर्माचरणस्य समुचाटनमन्त्रः कलिमहाग्रहस्य कीर्तिपताका ग्राहसार्वभौमस्य सकलसदुणसमग्रोऽयं विद्वद्वामः प्राप्तो मम दिष्ट्या दृष्टिगो-चरताम् ॥ इति धर्मविजये प्रथमस्तबकः ॥

Dharmavijayachampûkavya by Bhûminâtha-Kavî.

Dr. Burnell, in identifying this village with the town of Tanjore in his Tanjore Catalogue, p. 21a, has evidently fallen into a mistake. He had not perhaps facilities for knowing that the benevolent Râja Sâhaji I. caused a Brâhmanical village to be founded on the banks of the river Kâvêrî, on a site best fitted for the performance of the religious ceremonies of the Brâhmanas, and called it after his own name Sâhajirâjapuram. The boundaries of the village on all its four sides have been thus mentioned in the gift-deed by the Râja: — Vêppattûr on the east, Tribhnvanam on the south, Maṇanjêri on the west, and Aṇakkudi on the north. Further, Tanjore does not appear to have been known by any secondary name at any time. An indirect proof of this fact is furnished by the following passages: —

तत्र तञ्जापुरं नाम राजस्थानमनुत्तमम् । राजानः प्रथितास्तत्र भोसलीयान्ववायजाः ॥

Hiranyakêsîyasûtravyûkhyûna, composed in A. D. 1815 by Vâñchhêsvara.

अथ कविवचःपुष्पैर्गन्धोत्तरैरधिवासितं सुचरितसुधापूरं शाहप्रभोर्डुधजीवनम् । श्रुतियुगपुटेनास्वाद्यानन्दबन्धुरितान्तरः सकुतुकमसौ धर्मस्तञ्जापुरीं समुपागमत् ।।

Dharmavijayachampüküvya, chapter 2, verse 1.

अम्लानाभिरपास्तरज्ञुनहनक्षेत्रााभिरम्भोरुह-स्निग्भः सौधजुषामपाङ्गजनिभिः सन्धावमेणीवृत्राम् । आयुष्मात्रघुनाथभूमिपरिणीरभ्यर्चितो भूयसा संजातप्रमदो बलेन निरगात्तञ्जापुरीतो बहिः ॥ तत्तावृत्रो काचन चोलदेशे रमानटीनर्तनरङ्गत्राला । तञ्जापुरी नाम दरी हरीणां धराभुजां राजति राजधानी<sup>5</sup> ॥

> Sáhityaratnákarakávya by Yajñanârâyana-Dîkshita, son of Gôvinda-Dîkshita, the prime-minister of Achyuta-Nâyaka and of his son Raghunâtha-Nâyaka of Tanjore.

Again, in attributing the authorship of the Janakiparinayanataka to Chokkanatha, Dr. Burnell is far from correct. Probably he misconstrued the following line which is found in it, 'सों ऽयं दीव्यनि चोक्रनाथमखिनामक्रीतद्याः कविः" meaning, "he — the son-in-law of Chokkanatha-Dikshita — is the famous author of this work." He seems to have mistaken अक्रीत for अकृत

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See also verse 3 of the extract from Venkatêsvara-Kavi's Unadinighanțu quoted below.

and चोक्कनाथमाखिनां for चोक्कनाथमाखिनामा. Such mistakes are not of uncommon occurrence in Dr. Burnell's Tanjore Catalogue, and I take advantage of this opportunity to note a few of them:—

- (1) P. 55, Rasikarañjinî, a tîkâ, "by the author of the text, Appayadîkshita" for "by Gangâdharâdhvarin on Appaya-Dîkshita's Kuvalayânanda."
- (2) P. 172, Vidyaparinayanataka by Anandarâyamakhin, "son of Nârâyana" for "son of Nrisimhâdhvarin."
- (3) P. 170, Mallikâmâruta, a prakaraṇa "by Ranganâtha of Lâṭapura" for "by Uddaṇḍa, son of Ranganâtha of Lâṭapura."
- (4) P. 174, Sabhápativilása, a nátaka in 5 ankas "by Dharmarâja" for "by Venkatêśvara, son of Dharmarâja."
- (5) P. 163, "Harivamśasāracharita by Appayadikshita" for "Harivamśasāracharitavyākhyāna by Appaya-Dikshita."
- (6) P. 158, Tripuravijayachampû "by a son of Nârâyaṇadîkshita" for "by Nṛisimha-Dîkshita."
- (7) P. 171, Raghundthavildsa, a modern play in 5 ankas, "founded on the Râmdyaṇa by Yajñanârâyaṇa" for "founded on the exploits of Raghunâtha-Nâyaka, one of the (Nâyaka) rulers of Tanjore, &c."
- (8) P. 173, Sringårasarvasvabhåna, a bhåna "by Kauśika Nallâbudha, son of Nallâbudha. son of Râmachandra" for "by Kauśika-Nallâbudha, son of Bâlachandra."
  - (9) P. 158, Dharmavijaya. "Anon." for "by Bhûminâtha-Kavi."
- (10) P. 58, Sahityaratnakara. "Examples illustrating the rules of poetry in ten sargas. This work is called a Mahakavya, but there does not appear to be any continuous story in it." Dr. Burnell is totally incorrect. Sahityaratnakara by Yajnanarayana-Dikshita is a Mahakavya and is about Raghunatha-Nayaka of the Tanjore Nayaka dynasty.
- (11) P. 57, "Rasârṇava, a similar treatise, by Simhamahîpati. The nominal author is said to have been a Tanjore prince of the last century. The work does not seem to have been ever finished, and it is certainly not a matter for regret that such is the case." Here, again, Dr. Burnell is unfortunately wrong. The name Simhamahîpati or Singabhûpâla, as he is otherwise called, does not occur in the lists of the Nâyakas or the Marâțha Râjas of Tanjore. The name Singabhûpâla and his work Rasârṇava are often quoted already by Kumârasvâmin, son of Mallinâtha, in his Ratnâpaṇa, a commentary on the Pratâparudrayaśôbhûshana.
- (12) P. 162, Sarabhardjavildsa, "a history of Sarabhôjirâja of Tanjore (1796-1833) by Jagannâtha" for "a history of Sarabhôji I. of Tanjore, composed in A. D. 1722 by Jagannâtha."

The work begins: — अखिललोकमनोवद्गीकरणप्रगुणैरात्मगुणैः सर्वस्मिन्नुर्वीवलये स्वयमेकराजतयान्वर्थनाम्नः श्रीमदेकमहाराजस्य तनूजरत्नहारमध्यनायकः \* \* \* \* \* \* तञ्जापुरीति प्रथितनामान्तरामलकां नाम पुरीमधिवसन् \* \* ज्यायसा प्रकारेरपि सर्वैः श्रीज्ञाहमहीरमणेनोदूढविश्वविश्वंभरतया \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* जगति विजयते विजयतेजाः प्रतिनृपतिसिंहरंहःप्रज्ञामनज्ञरभः ज्ञारभमहाराजः ॥

## Ends: -- कल्यब्देषु गतेष्वक्षिकरदिक्सिन्धु( ४८२२ )सङ्ख्यया । वत्सरे ग्रुभकृन्नाम्नि व्यरचीदं निबन्धनम् ॥

(13) P. 161, Råghavacharitram by (or rather attributed to) "Sarabhôji Râja of Tanjore (nineteenth century)" for "Sarabhôji I. Râja of Tanjore (eighteenth century)."

Introduction to the Raghavacharitram:-

रत्नेषु मुक्ताफलवद्गहेषु शीतांशुवत्कल्पकवहुमेषु ।
अभ्यहितस्तेष्वभवच धीमानेकोजिनामा नृपसार्वभौमः ॥
विधाय श्राह्मन्वनतान्बलेन तञ्जाधिपः सोध्यमभून्निजेन ।
स्विक्रमावर्जितसत्वभाजो मृगेन्द्रता हि स्वयमेव लोके ॥
विश्वंभरोध्याविह दीव्यतीति स्वयं च लक्ष्मीरवतीर्य भूमौ ।
दीपाम्बिकेति प्रथिता पति तमविन्दिदन्दुं किल रेहिणीव ॥
तस्मादजायन्त मुतास्त्रयोध्स्य शस्त्रे च शास्त्रे च निकामदक्षाः ।
तेष्वप्रजन्मा जगति प्रतीतः शाहेन्द्रनामा जितभोजकीर्तिः ॥
तस्यानुजन्मा तपनातिचण्डप्रतापभूमप्रथमानलक्ष्मीः ।
जगन्त्रयद्योतिजयापदानो जयत्युदारः शरभेन्द्रनामा ॥
पौढैः कवीन्द्रैः परिशीलनेन विज्ञाय साहित्यविलासभेदान् ।
करोति काव्यं रघुवीरगाथापवित्रितं सेषमुदे बुधानाम् ॥

(14) Jâmbavatîkalyâṇa, "by Kṛishṇarâya" for "by Kṛishṇarâya, king of Vijayanagara (A. D. 1510 to 1529)."

At the end of the work :-

धर्मः पादचतुष्टयेन कृतवत्स्थैयं समालम्बतां चातुर्वर्ण्यमुपैतु कर्म सततं स्वस्वाधिकारोचितम् । शेषक्ष्माधरनायकस्य कृपया सप्तार्णवीमध्यगां रक्षन्गामिह कृष्णरायनृपतिर्जीयात्सहस्रं समाः ॥

Colophon :— समाप्तमिदं राजाधिराजराजपरमेश्वरसकलकलाभोजराजविभवमूरुराय-गण्डश्रीमत्कृष्णरायमहारायविरचितं जाम्बवतीकल्याणं नाम नाटकम् ॥

(15) P. 173, Sringårabhúshana, a bhána by Våmanabhatta-Bâna, composed for the Virûpâksha-Chaitrayâtrâ "at Tanjore" for "on the banks of Tungabhadrâ."

Introduction to the Sringarabhûshanabhana:-

सूत्रधारः—मारिषाच खलु चराचरगुरोरुतुङ्गनुङ्गभद्रातरङ्गतालवृन्तापनीयमान-सांध्यताण्डवपरिश्रमस्य हेमगिरिकूटत्रीलाकरहेमकूटगृङ्गविहितमङ्गलायतनस्य कामाग-मनिधिवामभागस्य द्रोखरीभूतद्गीतभानुदाकलस्य भगवतो विरूपाक्षस्य चैत्रयात्रामहोत्सवे

## रतितन्त्रदेशिकानां रतिपतिनिगमान्तवावदूकानाम् । वैदग्ध्यभूषणानामेषा परिषत्समागता विदुषाम् ॥

## तस्केनापि रूपकेण सभामिमामाराध्य सफलियध्यामो वयं कुलक्रमागतं प्रयोगिवद्यावै-शृद्यम् ॥

(16) P. 170, Maratakavalliparinaya, a naitaka in 5 ankas, by Srînivâsadâsa, son of Dêvarâjârya of the Bhâradvâja family. As far as I can make out the passage, he is of the same family as a Mâdhava who wrote commentaries "on the Upanishads" for "on the Dramidôpanishads."

Introduction to the Maratakavalliparinayanataka:-

## तदिह द्रमिडोपनिषद्विवरणपरमगुरुमाधवाचार्यवंद्यमुक्तामणेर्भारद्वाजकुलजलिध-कौस्तुभस्य श्रीदेवराजार्यस्य तनयेन श्रीनिवासकविना विरचितेन मरतकवङ्कीपरिणया-भिधानेनाभिनवेन नाटकेन भवतः परितोषयामि तदनुगृह्णन्तु ।

(17) P. 170, "Madanabhûshaṇa, a bhâṇa by ——? The author is said to have lived at Kilayanûr, which must be in the neighbourhood of Madras" for "Madanabhûshaṇa, a bhâṇa by Appâdhvarin. The author is said to have lived at Killayûr in the neighbourhood of Mâyûram (Mâyavaram, in the Tanjore District)."

In religion, Bâmabhadra-Dîkshita was a Smârta Brâhmana and a votary of Râma. His works, poetical or philosophical, always begin with an invocation to Râma, or have Râma for their subject. In his Sringâratilakabhāṇa, we come across the following sentence, put into the mouth of the Pâripârśvika— "कथमस्य एच्चीरचरणार्विन्दस्मरणित्त्तर्भवणचेतसो भाणिवर्माणेऽपि प्रवृत्तं इत्यम्"— meaning "how is it he (Râmabhadra-Dîkshita) whose thoughts are ever bent on meditating on Râma, has undertaken to write a bhāṇa?" The following verse addressed to Kṛishṇa and believed to have been composed by the author one night in his dream, occurs in his Râmakarṇarasâyana and clearly shows his unshaken attachment to Râma and Râma alone.

मौलै निधेहि मकुटं त्यज बर्हिवर्ह बाणं गृहाण धनुषा सह मुञ्च वेणुम् । शाखामृगैर्विहर संत्यज गोपबाला-त्रामो यदूद्वह भव त्वमथाश्रये त्वाम् ॥

meaning "Remove the peacock's feathers and wear the crown on thy head; drop the flute and grasp the bow with arrows; abandon the cowherd boys and associate with monkeys; O, the brightest of the Yadus, transform thyself into Râma and then will I be attached to thee." The following note is added after the verse in the manuscript—स्वत्रह्दोऽयं श्रोक:— i. e., "the verse which he composed in his dream."

I now turn to Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's works. The following is a list of them so far as they are known to me: (1) Jánakipariṇayandṭaka, (2) Sṛṇṇgâratilakabhāṇa, (3) Paribhāshāvṛitti-vyākhyāna, (4) Shaḍdarśanisiddhāntasangraha, (5) Patañjalicharitakāvya, (6) Bāṇastava, (7) Chāpastava, (8) Tāṇīrastava, (9) Prasādastava, (10) Viśvagarbhastava, (11) Rāmastavakarṇara-sāyana, (12) Ashṭaprāsa, and (13) Āchāryastavarājabhūshaṇa (a review of "Āchāryastavarāja," a work by Brahmānandamuni in praise of his preceptor Kṛishṇānandamuni). A critical

study of them would convince any reader that they were all written by the same author. As regards the first four, the author himself, in the introductory portion, gives his name and some details of his life. The next two are pronounced to be the works of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita by his pupil Venkaţêsvara-Kavi in his commentary on the Patańjalicharitakâvya-Besides, there is sufficient internal evidence in these six works to show that they were composed by the same author. Similarity of style and sentiments, recurrence of the same words and phrases, and occasionally even of a couplet or a verse with a slight change, prove clearly that they are the works of the same person. I shall here quote some instances:—

(1) किमिदं प्रभातप्राया रजनी संवृत्ता । यदिदानीं \* \* ।

चन्नद्वन्दं चदुलनिलनीनालडोलाधिरूढं

गाढाश्विष्टं त्यजित रजनीजातिवश्चेषदुःखम् ।

नक्तं भुक्त्वा नवकुमुदिनीं विश्वमार्थी विभाते

गञ्जागेहं विकचकमलं गाहते चन्न्नरीकः ॥ २२ ॥

Sringåratilakabhana.

चक्रद्वयीमधिगताम्बुजनालडोलामन्योन्यसंघटितपक्षपुटामकाण्डे । दूरे वियोजितवतो दिवसात्ययस्य दुष्कीर्तिवृन्दिमव संदृद्दे तिमस्रम् ॥८।२६॥ आसायमम्बुजवनीमालिराप्रभातमाश्रित्य तत्समयमत्यजदेव दूरे । क स्थातुमिच्छिति मुखे मुकुलीकृते १पि स्थानं न चेत्कुवलये कचिदप्यलभ्यम् ॥ ॥ ८। २९ ॥

Patanjalicharita.

(2) भानोः पश्चिमदौलकन्दरकुटीमभ्येयुषः संभ्रमा-त्संध्यारागमिषेण किं विगलिता भान्ति त्विषः पञ्चषाः । किंचैषा कृतनिश्चयेन कवलीकर्तुं महीमण्डली-मांक्रान्ता प्रथमं घनेन तमसा नीला तमालाटवी ॥ २२०॥ ''

Sringdratılakabhana.

हत्वानुतापभिति दिजराजलक्ष्मीं पाश्चात्यमिष्धिमधिनष्कृतये निमङ्कम् । चण्डसुतौ त्रजित संभ्रमतोऽस्य ग्रीणी रेजुस्त्विषस्त्रिचतुरा इव सांध्यरागाः ।। ८।२४॥ भूमण्डलस्य कबलीकरणाय पूर्व तालीवनं प्रविश्वाता तमसां भरेण । संदर्शिता ननु चमूविनिवेशभङ्गया कालीकटाक्षकलुषःकिल कालिमैकः ।।८।२५॥

Patanjalicharita.

(3) इदानीं वस्तुनां बृहदणुविभागानपहरत्समीकुर्वित्रम्नोत्रतमपि जगत्यन्धतमसम् ।
मुदं वासोमाल्याभरणरुचिसाधारणतया
विधत्ते संकेतस्थलमभिस्तानां मृगदृज्ञाम् ॥ २२९ ॥

Sringaratilakabhana.

दिष्ट्यावृता वसुमती तमसा घनेन निम्नोन्नतानि भुवि तेन समीकृतानि । इत्यादरादिभक्षतिः कुलटाजनस्य जाता तदा सद्धिपेन विना यथेष्टम् ॥ ८ । ३०॥ Patañjalicharita.

(4) आरक्तसंकुचदपाङ्गमुदस्तहस्तमुत्रितस्तनमृजुकृतमध्यभागम् । नीवीसमुच्छ्रसितदर्शितनाभिदेशं निद्रावशेषकलुषा कुरुतेङ्गभङ्गम् ॥ ६६ ॥ Sribadratilahabhana.

विराधः—(स्वगतम्) अस्याः खलु उत्तानिताननसरोजमुदस्तहस्तमुन्नित्रितस्तनमृज्भकृतमध्यभागम् । विस्नंसिनीवि वसुधानिहिताग्रपादं चित्ते ममार्पितमिव स्थितमुत्पलाक्ष्याः ।। Janakiparinayanataka, V. Act.

स्तर्नीविनहनं च्युतचेलं व्यञ्जितस्तनमृजूकृतमध्यम् । पाणिना विटपमानमयन्ती पञ्जवानहत काचन तासु ॥ २ । ३६ ॥

Patanjalicharita.

(5) आकर्षत्युपसत्य वेणिलतिकामप्यम्बुजेनाहती नायं मुज्ज्ञति पादमूलमृजुतां चित्ते विधत्ते गिराम् । प्रेमावेदाविकस्वरेण दानकैरङ्गीकृतश्रक्षुषा कामीवैष तवानताङ्गि पुरतः केकी मुदा नृत्यति ॥ ७५॥

Sringåratilakabhäna.

मा विकर्ष मम वेणिलतामित्याहतः करजुषा कमलेन ।
किं व्यथेति पुनरेव तरुण्या चुम्ब्यते स्म सुकृती ननु बहीं '' || २ | ४२ ||

Patañialicharita.

(6) अम्भोजकाननमहोत्सवलक्षणानि शीतांशुकान्तिशिष्ठीकृतिसूचकानि । आविर्भवन्ति मिथुनश्चतिदुःसहानि कुकूरुतानि चरणायुधकण्ठनालात् ॥ १३॥ Sringdratilakabhdna.

अम्भोजकाननमहोत्सवलक्षणानि शीतांशुकान्तिशिथलीकृतिसूचकानि । तावन्निशम्य चरणायुधकूजितानि शय्यामहो परिजहार न जारयुग्मम् ॥८।४८॥

Patañjalicharita.

(7) आस्ते कुत्रचिदम्बरं हिमकरः कादिम्बनी च कचि-द्वापी कापि चकास्ति मीनिमिथुनं कोकद्वयं चान्यतः । किंचाधः पुलिनोचयस्य कदलीकाण्डाववाग्रेपितौ तन्मन्ये चतुरस्य पुष्पधनुषः सगीऽयमन्यादृदाः ॥ २२८ ॥

Sringaratilakabhana.

विराधः—(दृष्ट्वा स्वगतम्) एषा निरितशयरूपलावण्या जानकी । (साश्चर्यम्) अपूर्वा खिल्वयं वेधसो विरचना । अथवा । जध्वी नीरदवृन्दमैन्दविमदं बिम्बं त्वधो निर्मितं व्योम्नः पत्वलचित्रतस्य निहितौ शैलावुपर्युन्नतौ । किंचाधः पुलिनोचयस्य कदलीकाण्डाववाग्रोपितौ तन्मन्ये चतुरस्य पुष्पधनुषः सर्गोऽयमन्यादृशः ॥ २२ ॥

Jánakî parinayaná taka, V. Act.

(8) कालीहर्यक्षकण्ठध्वनिभरपरुषं कुर्वतीरदृहासं साटोपन्यस्तपादक्रमनमदविन भ्राम्यतोर्मण्डलेन । निर्घातकूरमुष्टिपहृतबृहदुरस्तारठात्कारघोरा युद्धारम्भा हिडिम्बानिलसुतबलयोर्मछयोरु छसन्ति ॥ १४८॥

Sringaratilakabhana.

कालीहर्यक्षकण्ठःवनिभरपरुषं कुर्वतामदृहासं साटोपन्यस्तपादक्रमनमितभुवां भग्नशूलद्वमाणाम् । निर्घातकूरमुष्टिप्रहृतबृहदुरस्तारठात्कारघोरे युद्धे निर्दग्धलङ्कं रघुपतिविद्याखं नौमि रक्षःकपीनाम् ॥ ८९॥

Râmabâņastava.

(9) सखे, परय रमणीयतामुपवनस्य ।
पक्कानि प्रच्यवन्ते क्रमुकविटिपनामुच्छितानां फलानि
स्पन्दन्ते राजरम्भाः फलभरनिमता वाति मन्दानिलोशि ।
संदृइयन्ते विपाकच्युतमधुरफलव्याप्तमूला रसाला
भारेणामी फलानां युवतिकुचभरस्पर्धिनो नालिकेराः ॥ २०५ ॥

Sringaratilukabhana.

विद्युज्जिहः -- अहो रामणीयकं मुनेराश्रमस्य । इह हि पक्षानि प्रच्यवन्ते क्रमुकविटिपनामुच्छ्तानां फलानि स्पन्दन्ते राजरम्भाः फलभरनिमता वाति मन्दानिलीश्व । संदृरयन्ते विपाकच्युतमधुरफलव्याप्तमूला रसाला भारेणामी फलानां युवतिकचभरस्पर्धिनो नालिकेराः ॥ ४॥

Jánakiparinayanájaka, II. Act.

(10) निहस्य युधि ताटकां सह बलैः सुत्राहुं तथा करालमि राघवो यमपुरीमनैषीदिति । यमप्रहितवाचिकं निद्रामयन्वृषा मन्यते निद्राटवधनाटकप्रथमभूमिकोपक्रमम् ॥ ९ ॥

Janakiparinayanataka, IV. Act.

येन प्रौढेन मध्येमाह तरसभरालंकियाकल्पकेन स्रोकानुत्पादियता रजनिचरकुलोत्पाटनानाटकस्य । न्यस्तं प्रस्तावनायाः सपदि किल पदे ताडनं ताटकायाः सोऽस्माकं रामबाणः सुललितरचनां सूक्तिमाविष्करीतु ॥ १० ॥

Râmabânastava.

(11) करोमि हृदयाम्बुजे कमिप वीरमम्भोनिधे-र्निबन्धनमिबन्धनज्वलनबन्धुतूणीद्मयम् । न कश्चिदिप दृइयते जगित यस्य दाक्तो जये स्मरं प्रहितजानकीनयनपञ्चबाणं विना ॥ २ ॥

Paribháshávrittivyákhyána.

The above verse occurs as the 12th verse in the 1st Nishyanda in the Ramastavakarnarasayana.

(12) शुण्डालेन सलीलमेष कलभो वक्तान्मृणालोज्ज्वलं ज्ञम्भारम्भविकस्वरान्मृगपतेदं श्र्ङ्करान्कर्षति । एषा वत्सतरी च मातिर तृणान्यत्तुं गतायां किचि— ह्योपिन्या वरकन्दरस्थितिज्ञुषः स्तन्यं पयश्च्रषति ॥ ३९ ॥ Janakiparinayanataka. I. Act.

यत्र काननचरी गजराजी वीतकर्दममृणालविशङ्की ॥ जुम्भणेषु चटुलेन करेण व्याचकर्ष किल केसरिदंष्ट्राम् ॥ २ । २ ॥ यत्न चत्वरमपास्य तटान्ते चर्वितुं गवि तृणानि गतायाम् । द्वीपिनी रसनया परिलिह्य स्तन्यमपेयति वत्सतरस्य ॥ २ । ४ ॥

Patanjalicharita.

(13) खेलद्रेमाञ्जमालं राकलितरणकृहुन्दुभिक्रूरशृद्धं कक्षपक्षिप्तरक्षःपतिविधुताद्यरःपान्तघातक्षमान्तम् । तारावक्षेजभाराहृतघुतृणरसं वालिनो बाहुमध्यं विध्यन्वाणो विदध्यान्मम शुभमनिशं रामतूणीरधामा ॥ ६७ ॥

> Jânakîparinayand! aka, VI. Act. Vide 59th verse in the Bânastava.

(14) यावद्वाणसमीरवारितमहामायारजोदुर्दिना तेन क्षित्रयबालकेन बलिना दृष्ट्वा पुरस्ताटकाम् । हन्त स्नीति जुगुप्सया शिथिलितो मौर्वीविकर्षी करो वेगादलतितेन तावदिषुणा सा च स्वयं चिच्छिदे ॥ ३ ॥

Janakiparinayana!aka, III. Act.

यज्ञों में भवितेति कोसलपितं दारैः सुतैश्वानय-न्नुद्रस्ताटकयास्मि वर्त्मिन रजोवृष्टिं सृजन्त्या भृशम् । वत्से स्नीति पराङ्मुखेऽप्युदपतद्वाणः स्वयं कार्मुका-द्वित्रा तेन भुजान्तरे महति सा जीवं जहावञ्जसा ॥ ३५ ॥

Jánakiparinayanátaka, IV. Act.

प्राप्यानुज्ञामभिज्ञात्कुद्दिाककुलभुवस्तापसारकोपसान्द्रे स्वामिन्युन्मोक्तुकामेऽप्यनुचितमिदमित्यन्तरुद्धिन्नचिन्तः। कंचित्कालं विलम्ब्य स्मृतनिखिलजगद्रक्षणस्तत्क्षणं यः संतापं ताटकाया व्यधित युधि तमेवाश्रये रामवाणम् ॥ ५ ॥

Râmabânastava.

(15) प्रश्रष्टरत्नमकुटं पतितासिखेटं विस्तस्तेकामभितस्ततपाणिपादम् । मारीचमश्रमिव चण्डमरुद्धिधुन्वन्निन्ये कचित्रघुकिशोरशरः क्षणेन ॥ ६॥

Janakiparinayanatoka, III. Act.

मौलिश्रइयत्किरीटं गलपिरिबिगलचारमुक्ताकलापं लासोचन्मुष्टिबन्धश्वयकरयुगलसंसमानासिखेटम् ॥ १५॥ सस्तव्यालोलकेदो ततकरचरणच्छादिताद्यावकादो ॥ १६॥ क्षिप्तश्चण्डानिलेनाम्बुद इव गगने \* \* ॥ १९॥

Ramabanastava.

### GLIMPSES OF SINGHALESE SOCIAL LIFE.

BY ARTHUR A. PERERA.

(Continued from p. 61.)

### (7) Relationship and Rights of Property. 18

Seven generations of family descent is a matter of pride, and each link of the chain has a name of its own: (1) appa, (2) ata, siyiya or mutta, (3) mi-mutta, (4) natta, (5) panatta, (6) kitta, and (7) kirikitta (father, grandfather, &c.); these terms are used for the direct as well as collateral ancestors.

The next-of-kin to a father (appd) or mother (ammd) and brother  $(sah \hat{o} darayd)$  or sister  $(sah \hat{o} dari)^{19}$  are the father's brothers and mother's sisters, and mother's brothers and father's sisters; of these the first pair has a paternal rank and is called 'father' (appd) or mother (ammd), qualified by the words big (loka), intermediate (madduma), or little (punchi, kudd) or bdla, according as 'he' or 'she' is older or younger than one's parents; their children are brothers  $(sah \hat{o} darayd)$  and sisters  $(sah \hat{o} dari)$ , who are, in their turn, styled 'father' and 'mother' by the speaker's children. The second pair becomes 'uncle' (mdmd) or aunt (nendd); and their children male cousins (massind) and female cousins (nend), who are themselves addressed 'uncles' and 'aunts' by the next generation.

These are not confined to the relationships mentioned, but are used to friends and elders as expressions of endearment, familiarity or respect, and also to denote other forms of kinship. Appa, qualified as before, is applied to a mother's sister's husband or a step-father; amma to a father's brother's wife or a step-mother; mama to a father's sister's husband or a father-in-law; nenda to a mother's brother's wife or a mother-in-law; sahôdaraya to a wife's or husband's brother-in-law or a maternal cousin's husband; sahôdari to a wife's or husband's sister-in-law or a maternal cousin's wife; massina to a brother-in-law or a paternal cousin's husband; nena to a sister-in-law or a paternal cousin's wife.

Those who are related as 'brothers' and 'sisters' rarely marry; and a husband's uncles, aunts, and cousins of the one class are to his wife uncles, aunts, and cousins of the other. The terms son, nephew, grandson, and great-grandson, with their female equivalents, also stand for several forms of kindred. A son (pûtâ) is one's own son, the son of a 'brother' (male speaking) or of a 'sister' (female speaking). A daughter (duva) is one's own daughter, the daughter of a 'brother' (m. s.) or of a 'sister' (f. s). A nephew (bênâ) is a son-in-law, the son of a 'sister' (m. s.) or of a 'brother' (f. s.). A niece (lêlî) is a daughter-in-law, the daughter of a 'sister' (m. s.) or of a 'brother' (f. s.). A grandson (munupurâ) and granddaughter (minipirî) are a 'son's' or 'daughter's' or a 'nephew's' or 'niece's' children; their sons and daughters are great-grandsons (mî-munupurô) and great-granddaughters (mî-minipiri).

The ancestral holding of a field and garden devolves, according to the eld Singhalese Law, which is still in force, with modifications, in the inner provinces of the island, on the sons, unless ordained as Buddhist priests, or adopted out of the family, and on those daughters who are unmarried or have not moved from their parents after marriage. Matrimony is of two kinds: diga when the husband takes the wife to his own home, or binna when he settles down at her father's house. To keep a plot of ground intact the males have had recourse to polyandry.

<sup>18</sup> Authorities :--

<sup>(</sup>a) Thomson's Institutes of the Laws of Ceylon (1866), Vol. II. pp. 597-672.

<sup>(</sup>b) Phear's The Aryan Village in India and Ceylon (1880), pp. 173-205.

<sup>(</sup>c) Niti Nighanduva, or A Vocabulary of Kandyan Law (1880).

<sup>(</sup>d) The Orientalist, Vol. L. (1884) p. 217, and Vol. II. (1885) p. 64.

<sup>(</sup>e) Ceylon North Central Province Manual (1899), p. 108.

<sup>19</sup> Elder brother is ayiya. Elder sister is akka. Younger brother is malaya. Younger sister is nangi.

The co-owners work together (hawlata) and share the produce or divide the property into their respective lots (betma or pangu) before cultivation, or hold it on the following complicated system called Tattumāru (alternate). A field belongs to A and B in equal shares and is possessed in alternate years. If on their death two sons of A and three of B inherit it, then their possession for 14 years is A-1, B-1, A-2, B-2, A-1, B-3, A-2, B-1, A 1, B-2, A-2, B-3, A-1, B-1. In case of A-1 surviving, A-2 leaving two sons, B-1 three sons, B-2 four sons, and B-3 five sons, the tenure for 30 years is A-1, B-1a, A-2a, B-2a, A-1, B-3a, A-2b, B-1b, A-1, B-2b, A-2a, B-3b, A-1, B-1a, A-2b, B-2c, A-1, B-3c, A-2a, B-1a, A-1, B-2d, A-2b, B-3d, A-1, B-1b, A-2a, B-2a, A-1, B-3e.

When there is no male in a family or the proprietor is old or employed elsewere, the **fields** are rented out for cultivation for half the crop  $(and\hat{e})$ , or for a portion equal to one and a half or double the extent sown — about  $\frac{1}{10}$  of the produce (otu).

A cultivator who converts, with the owner's consent, a temporarily abandoned highland or waste ground (hēna), into a field or garden becomes entitled to it and pays a small rent (aswedduma or panduru mila), or has his trouble and expense made good, before the possession of the land is resumed, as his improvement right.

Lands are acquired by inheritance, paternal (pav urumé) or maternal (mav urumé), by bequests (thégi) made orally or in writing, by purchase (milata) or by prescription (buttiya). The mother is the heiress of an intestate child (daru urumé), and failing her the father becomes entitled to the property (jātaka urumé), but they cannot dispose of it. The rule of succession is children, parents, brothers and sisters, nephews and nieces, uncles and aunts and children of uncles and aunts; only on failure of the whole-blood descendants, do the half-blood succeed.

Deeds of gift, which generally had an imprecation against all future claimants, were revocable by the grantor except those to temples (pidavili) and to public officers in lieu of a fee; and an usurpation was valid if the proprietor did not recover possession within twelve months.

Service property held by hereditary tenants reverted to the landlord by abandonment (pālu), by failure of heirs (mala-pālu), or by forfeiture due to non-performance of personal services (nila-pālu).

Children who are ungrateful to parents or have been cruel to them or have brought disgrace on the clan by contracting inferior marriages are disinherited; the father, in presence of witnesses, declared his child disinherited, struck a hatchet against a tree or a rock, and gave to his other heir an ola, blank, or written with the disinheritance formula. There is no prescribed form for the adoption of a child, but it is necessary that he is of the same caste as the foster-parent and that he is publicly declared to the relatives as the adopted son and heir of the estate.

Minor differences about property were settled or compromised in the village councils (Gansabhåva) held in the ambalama or under the village tree. Appeals from them and the more important disputes were heard in the court of the provincial governor (Dissâva Maduva or Ratê Sabhâva) who was assisted by his high officials acting as assessors. He was empowered to give olas as titles to lands (sîttu) and direct anyone but those who had Royal grants (sannas) to quit possession. The Final Court of Appeal was presided over by the king or one of his ministers (Adikârama) and its decisions were final. The three ancient tribunals are now represented by the village assembly of the Chief of a district, by the Appellate Court of the Agent of a province, and by the Governor in Council. If a Dissâva or an Adigar found after inquiring into the evidence — no relatives were competent witnesses — that the issue was doubtful, he ordered a trial by oath or ordeal. The villages were summoned to the spot (dinapela) by showing them a cloth tied in three knots and they were bound to be present.

The oaths were either a mere asseveration (sattaka venavâ) or swearing upon one's eyes (esdekapâ) or on one's mother (ammapâ) or by striking the ground (polavê atagasâ), or by throwing up a handful of sand (veli udadamâ) or by lifting the hand towards the sun (irata ata nagâ) or by

touching a pebble (keta allá) or by the image of Vishnu or some other deity, or by the sacred scriptures (bana) or by Buddha's mandopla (tirisâraya). In all the above, punishment followed in this life itself, except where the Great Master was concerned, when the perjured person suffered in a future existence. There were five common forms of ordeal; that by hot oil required the adversaries to put their middle finger in boiling oil and water mixed with cowdung, and if neither or both were burnt the land was equally divided. The other four modes consisted of the disputants partaking of some rice boiled from the paddy of the land in question; breaking an earthen vessel and eating a cocoanut that were placed on the portion claimed; removing the rushes laid along the boundary; or striking each other with the mud of the disputed field; the claim was decided by any misfortune which fell to either party or his relatives within seven or fourteen days. There were two other forms which had fallen into disuse even in ancient times owing to the severity of the tests, viz., carrying a red-hot iron (ripolla) seven paces without being burnt and picking some coins out of a vessel containing a cobra (naya) without being bitten.

#### (8) Industries.

The several occupations in which the people are engaged have already been hinted at; agriculture and fishing require more detailed reference, as well as hunting, which is followed both to protect the crops from the depredation of wild animals, and as a means of sustenance in districts where cultivation is not possible.

Rice is sown three times a year — for the Maha crop in July, for the Yala in January, and for the Medakanna in October — in fields irrigated by tanks, or by rivers dammed up near their mouths: a row of piles is fixed in the bed of the stream and mats made of grass tied to them with jungle creepers: sufficient sand silts up against the framework for a dam. Each owner surrounds his claim of the communal tract of fields with an embankment (niyara), muds it with buffaloes (madavanava), removes the surplus water with a long wooden ladle (yotumāna) hung up on a cross beam at the edge of the field, and sows it with seed-paddy (bittara vi) which had been soaked in water till they had germinated. From a cadjan-shed (pela), erected on four trestles, the gamarala watches his field by night and day. The neighbours assist each other in reaping the grain (goyan hapanavā), tying the sheaves, threshing (goyan pāganavā), fanning the chaff in winnowing baskets (hulla) and stacking the straw; and are entertained with a mid-day meal. The harvest time is eagerly looked forward to by the villagers, those employed in towns taking leave of their masters to participate in these rural joys. When water fails, yams and fine grains are cultivated in terraces along hill-slopes, in beds of dried-up tanks, or in clearings (hēn) of the communal forests which surround each village: a village consists of a group of hamlets (gam).

The capture of elephants (ali) is effected either by pitfalls, female decoys, noosing or by large stockades (etgal); 20 leopards (koti) are taken "in traps and pitfalls, and occasionally in spring cages formed of poles driven firmly into the ground, within which a kid is generally fastened as a bait; the door being held open by a sapling bent down by the united force of several men, and so arranged as to act as a spring, to which a noose is ingeniously attached, formed of plaited deer's hide. The cries of the kid attract the leopard, which, being tempted to enter, is enclosed by the liberation of the spring, and grasped firmly round the body by the noose."21

Bears (valassu) are very greedy of honey, and this is taken advantage of by woodmen, who "suspend a heavy wooden mallet before the mouth of the fissure in which the hive is built, and a cross-bar to the trunk below at such a distance that when the bear sits on it the end of the mallet will be on a level with his head. Should, as is expected, the bear climb the tree, he makes himself comfortable on the seat provided for him, but no sooner has he done so then he finds the mallet in his way and he pushes it away, when the next moment it comes back and cracks him over the head.

There is quite a literature on the subject; consult Modder's Hand Book to the Elephant Kraal (1902).
 Tennant's Natural History of Ceylon (1861), p. 27.

This irritates him of course, and he pushes the mallet with greater force but only with the effect of increasing the weight of the returning blow. The bear never thinks of changing his position, and as blow after blow, each succeeding one severer than the other, follows his attempts to thrust the offending log aside, the end soon comes, when, stunned by a blow stronger than the rest, he drops into the pitfall or is impaled on the stakes planted to receive him."22

Porcupines (ittérô) are caught by setting up in an opening "a framework of sticks about 3 ft. square, one side of which rests on the ground, and the other is held up at an angle of about 45° by a cord attached to a stick bent down and intended to act like a spring. The frame is weighted with heavy stones, and underneath it, right in the way of the animal, is a trigger the slightest touch against which releases the spring and brings down the weighted frame with crushing effect."23

Buffaloes (mîharak) keep in herds in their rutting season (December and January) and are caught with "a stout elk-hide rope, with a running noose at one end and a piece of elk-horn with the frontlet tine at the other. Several nooses of this kind are suspended from bushes on the path of the buffaloes and the herd is driven from its feeding grounds with shouts and the clanging of sticks. The animals in their rush generally thrust their heads into the nooses and run away with the rope until pulled up by the elk-horn catching against a root. Here the animal is left struggling for a day or two, when it becomes sufficiently subdued to be yoked to a tame one and driven off to the kraal or pond prepared for the purpose."24

Hunters either surround a herd of deer, prevent them from feeding and knock them down when they are unfit to run away by sucking in a large quantity of air; or lie in ambush by a pool, a tank or along a deer-path, and when the animals approach sharply break off a twig from a tree, and as the sound brings them to a halt, shoot down the fattest of the herd. Hunting at night to shoot wild hogs, elk, deer and leopards is called yakmini atulla. "The expedition consists of two men, one carrying a gun, the other a chatty of live-coals on his head, and a hatchet with a bell attached to the handle. The former carries in addition powdered rosin in a bag with which he produces a blaze on the chatty on the companion's head." The bell and chatty are sometimes attached to the neck and sides of a sporting buffale, and the sportsmen follow in the dark and bring down the animals attracted by the light.

The Singhalese generally angle in streams with a rod 12 ft. long, made of the dried mid-rib of the leaf of the Caryota wrens (kitul); but in the rainy season he traps by placing long baskets (keman) in the crevices between stones and rocks where fish enter and are caught. In the dry season, when a piece of water is very shallow, fishing is done with a funnel-shaped basket opened at both ends (karak), which the fishermen, to quote Knox (p. 27), "jibb down, and the end sticks in the mud, which often happens upon a fish; which, when they feel beating itself against the sides, they put in their hands and take it out, and drive a ratan through their gills, and so let them drag after them."

Sluggish rivers are "fenced with strong stakes, diagonally to which are attached bamboo tats or screens. At certain distances, square chambers (jdkotu), made of the same material, are attached to the fence, having an open end opposed to the stream, and the interior is so constructed that a fish once entering cannot find its way out again. This mode of fishing is not practicable in large rivers owing to the strong currents which carry away the stakes." In some seasons of the year, at night, fishes spring up out of the water as they ascend the river, and to catch leaping fish the fishermen "place two poles upright in a boat at some distance from each other, spreading a net between them. (In man, seating himself at the stern of the boat, paddles it from one side of the river to the other; the fishes as they spring out of the water strike against the net and fall into the cavity of the boat."26

 <sup>22</sup> Illustrated Literary Supplement to the Examiner (1875), p. 85.
 23 Ibid. p. 164.
 24 Ibid. p. 230.
 25 Ibid. p. 19.
 26 The Ceylon Friend (1873), Vol. IV. p. 120.

Fishing in the open sea is carried on by three kinds of outrigger canoes: the small boat (kudá oru) keeping close in shore, the single-masted larger one (ruval oru) venturing further out, and the largest (yáttrá oru) constructed for stormy weather and carrying an oblong sail on two masts. The nets used vary from a drift net (mádela) to one with meshes so small that only a darning-needle-sized twig can pass through (kudádela).

(To be continued.)

#### MISCELLANEA.

## FEMALE TATTOOING AMONGST GHILZAIS.

BY GANGA SAHAL

Assistant Settlement Officer, Kohat.

THE following notes were taken from the members of a family of Tarakki Chilzais, whose camp was visited by me at Chichina. Their story was as follows:—

The great Ghilzai tribe formed two-thirds of the population of Afghânistân, the remaining onethird being Tajik. Their ancestral home lay on the other side of the Shutargardan Range and extended as far as Khurâsân. They were also called Kuchis, probably owing to their migrations to British territory in winter. As a rule they are a well-to-do class of people and trade in ght, carpets, sheep and horses. They live in kizhdais or small. tents made of blankets and carry their goods about on camels. In winter they settle in groups of families in British territory in villages, where by old custom they are allowed to graze their cattle on payment of a fixed tax. Some of the tribesmen look after the cattle on the hills, while others use the camels in selling wood and the carrying of salt trade. They intermarry among themselves at mature age, between 20 and 25, and alliances with Pathans in British territory are rare occurrences and even then only due to poverty or love. They have the reputation of being a set of well-behaved people with a good moral character.

Of the various sections of the Ghilzai Tribe, some have a fancy for picturesque tattooing, others like only one dot on the forehead, while the rest did not tattoo at all. My informant gave the following detail:—

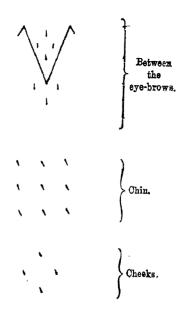
Tarakkis,
Badni Khel,
Hamran Khel,
Suleiman Khel
(partly known
as Katwaz),
Barik Khel,
Jamal Khel,
Wurdag,
Andar.

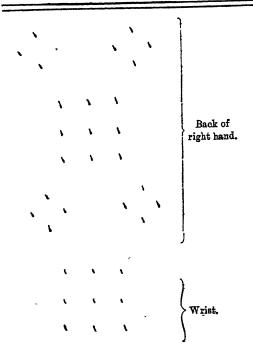
who live about Kandahâr and Kalât, and practise picturesque tattooing. Nâsir, Shinwârî and Mallâ Khel, Niâzîs, who live about Hazaristan and use only one dot. [Some of the Malia Khels, however, have told me that they were originally Sayyids and that tattooing did not prevail amongst them.]

The Bahram Khel, who live about Hazaristan, and the Taghar Ghilzais, who live about Lôgar, have no taste for tattooing.

The object in view is purely attraction. The operation is done when the girl is between 12 and 14. Three or four needles are taken and pricked into the flesh, and then collyrium (ranja) and soot collected by burning the gum of a kind of tree called mauz are rubbed over it.

The tattooing is done on the chin, forehead, cheeks, and backs of the hands. The following forms were common among the women of the family I visited:—



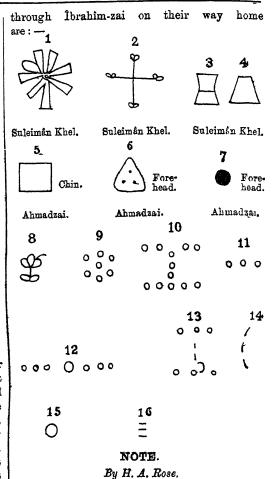


While I was drawing the specimens on paper the Ghilzais, men and women, were astonished at the resemblance of the copy to the original and were amused at my interesting myself in the matter. They asked me the object of the inquiry, and I explained to them that efforts were being made to trace how far forms of tattooing adopted by people scattered over the surface of different countries resembled each other, and to what extent the aims and the origin of this practice were common to different tribes. But they did not seem to realise the importance of the affinity of races, and thought that I was wasting their time as well as mine.

I also noticed that although black or grey was the favorite colour with the Ghilzais, the women of the family I visited wore clothing of a red colour — a colour assigned to Hindus on the Frontier.

I was also told that tattooing was also considered good for curing pain in the joints. One of the Ghilzais showed me a dot on the left wrist and a circle of dots on the right knee cut into the flesh to rid him of trouble in the parts affected, but most likely the cure was due to faith rather than to the treatment.

Other forms of tattooing stated to be in vogue by some of the Ghilzais passing



The fact that tattooing is prohibited in the Qorán makes its survival among the Ghilzais, who are, as far as I am aware, orthodox Sunni Muhammadans, of some interest. As strict Mussalmäns, the Sayyid septs, it will be observed, do not practise tattooing. The pictures do not appear to be those commonly used in the Panjäb (ante, Vol. XXXI. pp. 293 et seqq.), though No. 2 of the Suleimän Khel is like the world-sign figured on p. 294 in the left-hand bottom corner of the drawing above quoted.

The Ghilzais are a peculiarly interesting race. Though now Pathâns or Afghâns, they claim to be descended from Bîbî Mâto, the daughter of Shekh Bait (Qais-i-Abdu'r-Rashîd), by her paramour (and subsequently husband) Shâh Hussain, a Shansâbâni Tâjik of Ghor, so that they are half Afghân and half Tâjik by origin.

I take this opportunity of correcting an error in the article referred to above. The note on female tattooing on pp. 297-8 was by Mr. Gupta, except the last 5 lines on p. 298.

#### EPIGRAPHICAL NOTES.

### BY H. LÜDERS, PH.D.; ROSTOCK.

(Continued from p. 109.)

No. 24. — Mathura stone-slab inscription of the time of svamin mahakshatrapa Sodasa; edited by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 188, No. 29, and Plate; and by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rap. Vol. III. p. 30, No. 1, and Plate.

Dowson read this inscription :-

- ... swâmisya mahâ-kshatrapasya Şândâsasya Gajavarena Brahmanena Sangravasagotrena.
- ... rani. Imâ jâyamada pushkaranainâm paschimâ pushkaranim udapâno ârâmo stambhah.

Cunningham differs from Dowson only in reading Saudásasya, Bráhmanena Segrava Sage-trena, and Ima kshâyamada pushkaranainam paschima.

Fortunately the two facsimiles 19 allow us to improve these transcripts to some extent, and to add the third line entirely left out by the two editors. The facsimiles read as follows:—

- svâmisya mahâkshatrapasya Sôdâsasya . . ja Vîrêna brâhmanêna Sêgravasagôtrêna . . .
- rani imâ shâyamadapushkaranînam paśchimapushkarani udapânô ârâmô stambha i . . . .
- 3... bilâpațțâ cha I

The slab is damaged on both sides, and it is impossible to say how much of the text may be lost on either side. The name of the mahâkshatrapa was read correctly already by Bühler, who also proposed to restore the . . ja after the name to raje, 'during the reign.' The reading Segrava is quite distinct in both facsimiles, but I am unable to point out a gêtra of that name in Brahmanical literature. Nor can I offer any explanation of the term shâyamaḍa, provided that it be not the name of the tanks. In the last line bilápaṭṭā certainly is a mistake for śilāpaṭṭā. The erection of śilāpaṭṭas is recorded also in the Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 390, No. 18, and Actes du Congrès des Orientalistes à Leide, Part III. p. 143.81

The fragment is to be translated :-

- "During the reign of svámi (svámin) makákshatrapa Sôdása, . . . . the following (things), the hindmost tank of the shdyamada (?) tanks, a reservoir, a grove, a pillar, . . . . and stone-slabs (were dedicated) by the bráhmana Vîra, who belonged to the Sêgrava gôtra."
  - No. 25. Mathura image inscription of the time of maharajatiraja Kanishka; edited by Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep. Vol. III. p. 31, No. 5, and Plate.

This inscription is so much obliterated that it is impossible to make out any continuous sense. Cunningham transcribed it:—

- 1 . . . . . ghoshaka parahasâlika vairakasapâta vatah . . . .
- 2 . . . . (ma)hârâjâtirajasya Kanishkasya Samvatsa(re) . . . .

The facsimile is rather in favour of the following reading:-

- 1 . . . gîtagê . . . lêtośamê . . . . ghêshakaparahaśâlêkavikkakasapêtavatuh radatu . . .
- 2 . . . . . [ma]h[â]râjâtir[â]jasya Kaṇishkasya samvatsa[rê] . . . . .

<sup>79</sup> Dowson's facsimile seems to be the better of the two.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>84</sup> Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. V. p. 177.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>81</sup> Perhaps silapatia is here the nom. sing. of a feminine noun; compare the last-mentioned inscription and Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 397, No. 35, where the same ambiguity exists with respect to silapata and dyagapata.

As long as no trustworthy reproduction of the inscription is obtainable, I consider it rather hopeless to attempt any restoration of the first line. But I wish to draw attention to another point. In the Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 129, No. 16, Rajendralala Mitra has brought to notice a Mathurâ inscription engraved on the pedestal of a seated figure and consisting of two lines, the first of which is said to be illegible, while in the second he reads the words mahardjasya rajdiirajasya Dévaputrasya Vasu . . . The last two syllables he wants to restore to Vásudé. vasya. A look at the facsimile added to the Babu's paper, however, reveals a curious fact. The first line of his inscription is exactly the same as the first line of Cunningham's inscription No. 5 given above, while in the second line the facsimile indeed agrees with the transcript. The identity of the first lines makes it quite sure, of course, that the two facsimiles are meant to reproduce the same original, and we are therefore forced to decide the question which of the two deserves the greater credit. I do not hesitate for a moment to declare myself in favour of Cunningham's facsimile. Rajendralala Mitra tells82 us that his facsimiles 'are taken from General Cunningham's transcripts. with such corrections and emendations as a careful examination of the original and comparison with Mr. Bayley's transcripts would warrant, leaving all doubtful letters as they were read by the General,' How little these words are in accordance with the facts, has been shown long ago by General Cunningham himself.83 The total want of care and criticism displayed by Rajeadralala Mitra here, as in every other work of his pen, fully justifies my opinion that in this inscription also the reference to Vâsudêva is nothing but a product of his own imagination.

### No. 26. — Mathura Buddhist stone inscription;

edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 129, No. 14, and Plate; and by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 183, No. 3, and Plate.

This inscription originally ran round the margin of an oblong slab, but when the stone was utilised for a new purpose, the edges on the two smaller sides of the slab were cut away together with a portion of the inscription. Dowson has recognised 'the initial letters of the word Samvatsara (year), the word divase, followed by the numeral 10, and the words asya purvvaye, dânam bhikshusya buddha sarvvasa; 'Rajendralala Mitra's transcript is more complete, but his readings are for the most part wrong. I read the inscription from Dowson's facsimile: -

- 1 Sam . . . . . diva-
- 2 sê 10 asyâ pûrvvayê dânam bhikshusya Buddhanandi[s]ya . . .
- 4 . . . . sarvvasatv[â]n[âm] . . . . sukh[âr]tha[m] bhavatu.

"The year . . . . . . , the tenth day, on that (date specified as) above, the gift of the monk Buddhanandi (Buddhanandin) . . . . . May it be for the . . . welfare of all beings."

### No. 27. - Mathura Jaina tablet inscription; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 397, No. 35.

Bühler transcribed this inscription :-

- 1 [Tê] . . . . rusanamdikasa putrêna Namdighôshêna [Tê]vanikêna a . . . . ta . . alê . . . .
- 2 nanam bhamdirê [a]yagapata pratithapit[a] . . . . . . .

The photo-lithograph enables us to make a few corrections. Instead of Namdikasa and Namdighôshêna in line 1 and ondnam in line 2 the plate distinctly shows Namdikasa, Namdighôshêna, and ondadm. With the first two words compare such spellings as amtérasisa in Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 198, No. 1, and anter a siniye, ibid. p. 199, No. 4. Tevamka was considered by Bühler to be a derivative

<sup>82</sup> Loc. cit. p. 120.

<sup>83</sup> Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 194.

<sup>34</sup> There are two aksharas before sarıva° and two before sukhartham which I cannot make out.

from the name of a nation or country called Trivarna or Traivarna. From the mentioning of a Tévansputra in the Pabhôsa inscription No. 2 st I think it highly probable that there really once existed a country of that name, but I cannot admit that there is any allusion to it in the present inscription. The reading of the plate is unmistakably sôvanikêna, corresponding to Sk. sauvarnkêna. The synonym hairanyaka is found, e.g, in the Mathura inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 205, No. 23. A difficult term is the word which Bühler transcribes as bhandirê. A comparison of the second akshara with the di in Nândikasa and Nândighôshêna will show at once that Bühler's reading cannot be upheld. The correct reading is bhandirê, but whether this means 'at the bhandira tree,' or possibly stands for Sk. bhândârê, 'at the storehouse,' I do not venture to decide at present. I read and translate the whole text as follows:—

- 1 . . . . rusa<sup>86</sup> Nâmdikasa putrêna Nâmdighôshêna sôvaṇikêna a . . . . ta . . alê . . . .
- 2 nanam bhamdirê ayagapata pratithapita pita ......

### No. 28. - Mathura stone inscription;

edited by Growse, Ind. Ant. Vol. VI. p. 218, No. 4, and Plate.

Of this inscription, which is engraved on a slab found at the Kankali Tîla, Mr. Growse published a tolerably good reproduction, but his reading is confined to a single word which he maccurately transcribed as *Mugali-putas*. Unfortunately the left portion of the stone, which contained the beginning of the inscription, is lost. The characters are of the archaic type, and the language is not the usual mixed dialect of the Mathurâ inscriptions, but pure Prakrit. My reading is as follows:—

1 . . . . yê Mogaliputasa Puphakasa bhayâyê

2 Asâyê pasâdô.

"The gift of Asâ (Aśvá?), the wife of Puphaka (Pushpaka), the son of Mogalf (a Maudgali mother)"...

My rendering of the last word calls for a few remarks. At first sight, one might feel inclined to alter pasådô into pásådô and to translate, with an implicit understanding of some word like dânam or patithâpitô or kâritô: 'a temple, (the gift of, or erected or caused to be built) by Asâ, the wife of Puphaka.' But I think, that such an alteration is unnecessary, and that we may rest satisfied with the text as it stands. It is well known that in classical Sanskrit prasåda is used in the sense of 'present,' especially in the very common term prasådikarôti; the Sabdakalpadruma gives it the special meaning of dêva-nivêdita-dravyam. We are justified, therefore, to take also the pasådô of the inscription as a synonym of the more usual dânam. In this case the object of the donation would be the slab which bears the inscription, and which probably was a so-called âyâgapatta.

About the name of Asa's husband I feel not quite sure. The second syllable may possibly be read dha.

Although this inscription is not dated, it may be safely assigned to the period before Kanishka on the strength of its language and characters, and from the fact that it comes from the Kankâlî Tîla it may be further inferred that it is a Jaina record. Why Mogaliputa should be a distinctly Buddhist appellation, as Mr. Growse thinks, I am unable to see.

<sup>85</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol II. p. 243.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>86</sup> I am unable to make out any of the aksharas before rusa, but I believe that the word ending in °rusa was the genitive of a stem in u, qualifying Namdikasa.

<sup>87</sup> These two aksharas are pretty clear in the photo-lithograph.

<sup>88</sup> Possibly, however, dydgapata is the nom. sing. of a feminine noun; compare the remarks, above, p. 149, note 81.

<sup>89</sup> See the Petersb. Dict. where numerous examples are quoted.

No. 29.—Mathura Buddhist rail inscription; edited by Growse, Ind. Ant. Vol. VI. p. 219, No. 6, and Plate.

Of this archaic-looking inscription, which is between two bas-reliefs on a broken Buddhist rail from the Chaubâra mounds, Mr. Growse deciphered only the last word dânam. I tentatively read the whole:—

Abhyamtirôpa ayakasa Kathikasa dânam.

Below the first sign of ayakasa there is a circle, which, at first sight, makes the word look like sthayakasa, but a closer examination and comparison of the upper sign with the sa of Kathikasa will show that it cannot be sa. The circle therefore seems to be accidental or to form part of the sculpture below. O As to the meaning of the inscription, I own that I can make nothing of the first word. The rest may be translated by 'the gift of the venerable. Kathika.'

No. 30. — Mathura Jaina inscription on sculptured slab; edited by Bhagvanlal Indraji, Actes du Sixième Congrès International des Orientalistes à Leide, Part. III. p. 143, and Plate.

This inscription was read and translated by the Pandit as follows: -

- 1 Namô arahatô Vadhamânasa Damdâyê ganikâ-
- 2 yê lênasôbhikâyê dhitu samanasa nikâyê
- 3 Nâdâyê ganikâyê vâsayê ârahatâdêvakulê
- 4 âyagasabhâprapâśilâpatâ pratisthâpitam nigamâ-
- 5 na arahatayatanê saha matarê bhaginiyê dhitarê putrêna
- 6 savina cha parijanêna arahatapujâyê.

"Salutation to the Arhant Vardhamâna. The courtezan Nandâ, daughter of the courtezan Daṇḍâ, built in the Ârhat temple of merchants for the residence of the assemblage of Sramaṇas and for the worship of Arhant a small Ârhat temple, seats for <code>dcháryas</code>, a reservoir and a slab of stone, with (the merit of the building to be enjoyed with) mother, sister, daughter, son and all relations."

The anomaly of the construction in the first portion of this sentence apparently did not escape the attention of the Pandit, who remarks that the syntax of the record is not smooth, and adds in a note: 'The original has nikûye, but unless it be read nikûyasa, the inscription does not make good sense.' However, such an alteration seems to me very bold, without removing the difficulties. If the genitive nıkdyasa were dependent on vásayê, the insertion of the words Náddyê ganikdyê between nikdyasa and vásayé would be quite unaccountable, their proper place, of course, being after dhitu. Secondly, it is true that in Sanskrit and Prakrit the singular of a noun is often employed to denote the jati even in cases where the plural would be required by the usage of other languages, but I doubt that a singular of this kind could ever be used in connection with a collective noun, such as nikaya. Considering all these difficulties, I feel quite sure that the Pandit has misread the passage and that the correct reading is samanasavikayê, corresponding to Sk. sramanasravikaya, 'by the lay-pupil of the ascetics.' Precisely the same term occurs in two other Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 390, No. 17 (śramanaśrávikáyé) and Vol. II. p. 199, No. 2 (sama na\*]sávikáye), while in a third inscription, ibid. Vol. I. p. 395, No. 28, the shorter expression śráviká is used. That savika should appear here with the dental s by the side of samana with the palatal sibilant, will not be surprising to anybody familiar with the total want of regularity in the spelling of the Mathurâ inscriptions. An exact parallel is offered by the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 396, No. 30, where we find savakasya = Sk. śrávakasya by the side of śisasya = Sk. śishyasya. The correctness of my reading is partly confirmed also by the drawing accompanying the Pandit's edition, for although the fiith akshara looks more like ni than like vi, the fourth akshara is distinctly sa, not sa.

<sup>90</sup> A second circle appears to stand below the ya.

<sup>11</sup> Ayakasa = Sanakrit dryakasya.

After what has been said above, it will be obvious, I think, that vásayê cannot possibly mean 'for the residence.' I take it to be an inaccurate spelling for Vásáyê and look upon it as a surname of the donatrix standing in apposition to Nádáyê gaṇikâyê just as Lêṇaśôbhikâyê stands in apposition to Dandáyê gaṇikâyê.

Also with regard to the following words I differ from the Pandit's interpretation. I have pointed out already above, p. 102, that instead of årahatådévakulé the drawing has årahatå dévikulå, and that this is a nom. sing. corresponding to Sk. århatam dévakulam.<sup>92</sup> With the feminine dévikulå compare the term dévakulikå frequently found in the meaning of 'shrine' in later Jaina inscriptions.<sup>93</sup> As to dyagasabhå, which the Pandit renders by åryakasabhå in Sanskrit and by 'seats for åchåryas' in English, I am inclined to adopt Bühler's view,<sup>94</sup> who thought the first member of the compound to be possibly identical with dyåga occurring several times in the term åydgapaṭa in the Jaina inscriptions at Mathurâ.<sup>95</sup> As dyågapaṭa means 'a tablet of homage,' a slab put up in honour of the Arhats, dy[å]gasabhå also would be an appropriate term for some hall erected in honour of the Arhats. The åyågapaṭas themselves are mentioned here in the list of gifts under the name of silåpata.<sup>96</sup>

The drawing again suggests some minor corrections. In line 1 it reads drahatô Vadhamánasa; compare áraháto Mahávirasya, Vienna Or. Journ. Vol. X. p. 172; drhatô Parśvasya, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 207, No. 29; drahamtapujáyê, ibid. No. 30, and, according to the photo-lithograph, also drahantapratimá, ibid. p. 203, No. 16. In line 4 the drawing shows patisthápitam, and in line 5 sa[h]á, which form is found also above, p. 39, No. 9; Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 199, No. 2; p. 201, No. 11; Journ. As. S. VIII. Vol. XV. p. 119, &c.

With these emendations the text reads: -

- 1 Namô ârahatô Vadhamânasa Damdâyê ganikâ-
- 2 yê Lênaśôbhikâyê dhitu śamanasûvikâyê
- 3 Nâdâyê ganikâyê Vâsayê ârahatâ dêvikulâ
- 4 âyagasabhâ prapâ śilâpatâ patisthâpitam<sup>97</sup> nigamâ-
- 5 na arahatâyatanê sa[h] a matarê bhaginiyê dhitarê putrêna
- 6 savina cha parijanêna arahatapujâyê.

"Adoration to the Arhat Vadhamâna (Vardhamâna)! By the lay-pupil of the ascetics, the courtezan Nâdâ, the Vâsâ, the daughter of the courtezan Damdâ, the Lêṇaśôbhikâ (or the adorner of caves), a shrine for the Arhats, a hall of homage, a reservoir, and stone-slabs<sup>98</sup> were set up in the Arhat temple of the merchants, together with her mother, her sister, her daughter, her son, and all her retinue, for the worship of the Arhats."

# No. 31. — Mathura Jaina inscription on sculptured torana; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 390, No. 17, and Plate.

At the end of the second line of this inscription Bühler read prati[shthapi]. The photo-lithograph, however, has very distinctly pratista[pi], which is to be restored to pratistapitam. This is not the only instance in the Mathura inscriptions of the occurrence of the dental sibilant in combination with a lingual mute. I have already pointed out above, p. 105, that in the inscription, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 203, No. 18, we have to read Stanikiyato instead of Sthankiyato as transcribed by Bühler, and in another inscription edited above, No. 30, we find patisthapitam. 39

<sup>92</sup> The Pandit translated it by arhatô dêvakulê in his Sanskrit version and by 'a small Ârhat temple' in English, so that it is impossible to say what he really meant.

<sup>93</sup> See, e. g., the Satrumjaya inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 48 ff., Nos. 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c.

<sup>94</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol. II. p. 814, note 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup> Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 396, No. 33 (ayûgapata); p. 397, No. 35; Vol. II. p. 200, Nos. 5 and 8; p. 207, Nos. 36 (âyûgapâta) and 32.

se Perhaps sitapata is the nom. sg. of a feminine noun; comp. the remarks above, p. 149, note 81.

Read patisthûpitû.

So Or, possibly, 'a stone-slab.'

Compare also the forms quoted from the Girnâr Aśôka edicts, above, p. 105, note 45.

In the third line Buhler twice read saha, whereas the photograph leaves no doubt that in both cases the correct reading is sahā. This spelling of the word is not uncommon in the Mathurâ inscriptions; see above, p. 153.

No. 32. — Mathura Jaina image inscription; edited by Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 389, No. 15, and Plate.

This inscription is only a short fragment transcribed by Bühler as:-

... śê êta[syâm] pûrvvâyâm Kottiyâtô ganatô ...

The reading sé is badly warranted by the photo-lithograph, the é-stroke and the cross-bar of the mátṛikā being hardly discernible, while the right down-stroke of the mátṛikā is much longer than it ought to be. In a note Bühler adds that sé must be the remnant of either vinsé or trinsé, but this again is not supported by the photo-lithograph. What is still visible of the sign preceding the supposed sé cannot possibly have formed part of either vi or tri, but looks exactly like the right half of the figure 10. In that case the next sign also must be a figure, and I think, there can be little doubt that it is 7; compare this figure in the Mathurâ inscriptions, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 383, No. 4; p. 387, No. 10; p. 391, No. 19; p. 396, No. 30, and especially p. 391, No. 20. I therefore read the fragment:—

... 10 7 êta[syâm] pûrvvâyâm Koṭṭiyâtô gaṇâtò ... and take the 17 to be the number of the day.

No. 33. — Mathura Jaina image inscription; edited by Growse, *Ind. Ant.* Vol. VI. p. 219, No. 8, and Plate.

According to Rajendralala Mitra, on whose authority Mr. Growse relied, this short fragment reads:—

Siddhajîvikasya datta-bhikshusya vihârasya

and means: "Of the monastery of Dattabhikshu, who had accomplished the object of existence." The real purport of the record has been recognised long ago by Bühler, who referred to it, Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 383, note 60, but his transcript is not quite accurate. The inscription reads:—

Siddha[m] II Vâchakasya Dattaśishyasya Sîhasya ni . . .

The last word is to be restored to nivartand, and the meaning of the words is: "Success! At the request of the preacher Sîha (Sinha), the pupil of Datta." Bühler has already noticed that this Sîha is mentioned again as the spiritual adviser of a lay-woman in a Mathurâ inscription probably dated in Sam. 20 (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 383, No. 4). The present inscription therefore is to be referred to about the same time.

Nos. 34, 35, and 36. — Mathura pillar inscriptions; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 128, Nos. 5a, 5b, 6, and Plate; and by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 186, Nos. 12 and 13.

The first and second of these inscriptions are on the base and plinth of a pillar, and the third is on the base of another pillar. If any trust can be put in Rajendralala Mitra's facsimiles, they are, for palæographical reasons, to be placed in the time of the Kushana rule at Mathurâ. As Rajendralala Mitra's and Dowson's transcripts differ in many respects, and the facsimiles are very poor, all that can be said is that the first inscription refers to the son of a certain Vasumihira, while the second and third mention a person who was the son of Simha, and whose own name ended in -mihira and probably was Vasumihira as given by Dowson. At the end of the second inscription Rajendralala Mitra read ména dévidharmáya ri trinê, Dowson imena devidharma parityâ, and at the end of the third Rajendralala Mitra dhammabhikshuda, Dowson deva dharma pu. There cannot be the slightest doubt that in both cases the correct reading is imêna déyadharma-parityágêna, and that these words are to be completed in analogy to a phrase used in another Buddhist inscription from Mathurâ:

anêna dêyadharmma-parîtyûgêna sarvvêsham prahanîkûnam árôgyadakshinûyê bharatu. 100 The facsimile, as far as it goes, conforms with the reading suggested.

Nos. 37, 38, and 39. — Mathura Buddhist inscriptions on bases of pillars; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 128, Nos. 8 and 9, and Plate; and by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. pp. 186, 187, Nos. 15, 16, and 21.

Of these three inscriptions only the beginnings seem to be legible. Dowson's No. 21 is transcribed by him as dinam Sangha-sthavirasya Bhadatta, which, of course, is to be corrected to dinam sangha-sthavirasya bhadanta..., "The gift of the elder of the congregation, the venerable..."

Dowson's No. 16 corresponds to Rajendralala Mitra's No. 9. According to the former it reads dánam Sanghapravirasya pu..., while Rajendralala Mitra renders it by danam Sanghapravirasya... I have no doubt that here again the correct reading is dánam sangha-sthavirasya..., and that the pra in the facsimile results from leaving out the small curve to the left of the sa and not closing the circle and omitting the dot of the tha.

Very little has been left of the third inscription. Dowson (No. 15) reads dánam Sangha.... Rajendralala Mitra (No. 8) dánam Sagha³ putra, but putra is not warranted by the facsimile, and I think it highly probable that this inscription also began with the words dánam samqha-sthavirasya.

Owing to the paucity of the distinct aksharas and the miserable condition of the facsimiles, it is difficult to pronounce a judgment on the characters of the inscriptions, but it seems that they are of the Kushana type.

No. 40. — Mathura Buddhist inscription on base of pillar; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 130, No. 19, and Plate.

Rajendralala Mitra read this fragment: dânam bhikshusya Buddhabhîmasya mabhikshusya . . . , but there exists neither such a name as Buddhabhîma nor such a designation as mabhikshu, the unworthy bhikshu.' From the facsimile it appears that the inscription commenced:—

d[â]na[m] bhikshusya Buddha[ra]k[sh]itasya cha bh[i]kshusya Sangha . . . . . .

The monk Buddharakshita mentioned here is undoubtedly identical with the person of the same name and title referred to as the donor of pillars in two other fragments from Mathurâ, the first<sup>4</sup> of which begins like the present one: dánam bhikshusya Buddharakshitasya cha<sup>6</sup> bhikshusya . . . , while the second reads: dánam bhikshusya Buddharakshitasya Sakyabhikshusya Sa . . . . The characters of the three inscriptions are of the Kushana type.

No. 41. — Mathura Buddhist image inscription; edited by Growse, *Ind. Ant.* Vol. VI. p. 219, No. 7, and Plate.

This inscription is engraved on the base of a seated Buddha, and is much worn, because the stone has long been used by the dhôbis as a washing-stone. Mr. Growse read the words daya-

<sup>100</sup> Journ. Bo. Br. Roy. As. Soc. Vol. XX. p. 269, note 2. Mr. Bhandarkar reads parityûgêna and sarvvêshûm, but the long î in the former word is just as distinct as in Suriyasya and prahanîkûnam, and though the reading sarvvêshûm perhaps is not impossible, I should prefer sarvvêshûm which is in accordance with the spellings bhikshunam and prahanîkûnam. The words anêna dêyadharma-parityûgêna are found also in the Mathurâ Buddhist pillar inscription, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. p. 130, No. 20, where Rajendralala Mitra reads . . . dêta-sharmma parata śatata.

<sup>1</sup> Or, properly, Samdhao, which, however, is a misprint.

The facsimile distinctly has sangha°, not sangha°.

Properly Sadha.

<sup>\*</sup> Bajendralala Mitra, ibid. p. 128, No. 10, and Plate; Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. p. 187, No. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> According to the facsimile the reading is perhaps bhikshusya Buddharakshitasya.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> This is Dowson's reading, which certainly is correct, though the facsimile has ma.

<sup>7</sup> Rajendralala Mitra, ibid. No. 7; Dowson, ibid. p. 186, No. 14.

Here also the facsimile seems to read bhikshusya.

dharmma and Buddha in the first line, and sarvva and again Buddha at the end of the second. A few more syllables can be made out with the help of the photo-lithograph, though a deciphering of the whole seems to be out of the question. I read:—

- 1 Dêyadhar[m]ô=yam Sa . . . . . . . kuṭum[bi]nyâ Buddha . . . . . . va[śri]yâyâ
- 2 då(?)va . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . [sa]rva-satvânâ[m] Buddha-tvâya (

To judge from these fragments, the inscription appears to have been entirely in Sanskrit and to have recorded the gift of a Buddhist lay-woman. From the analogy of numerous similar Buddhist inscriptions the last sentence may be restored with tolerable certainty: [yad=atra punyan tad=bhavatu sa]rva-satvānā[n] Buddhatvāya; 'whatever religious merit (there is) in this (act), let it be for (the attainment of) the condition of a Buddha by all sentient beings.' The few traces of letters which are still visible on the plate, would conform to this reading. The alphabet is of a later type than that used in the majority of the Mathurâ inscriptions. The characters closely resemble those found in a Buddhist image inscription from Mathurâ dated in 135,9 which date by common consent is referred to the Gupta era; compare especially the ma. 10 In my opinion the present inscription must belong to approximately the same time.

Nos. 42, 43, and 44. — Mathura Buddhist inscriptions on the pedestals of statues; edited by Rajendralala Mitra, Journ. Beng. As. Soc. Vol. XXXIX. Part I. pp. 128, 129, Nos. 11 and 12, and Plate; and by Dowson, Journ. Roy. As. Soc. New Ser. Vol. V. pp. 187, 188, Nos. 18, 19, and 24, and Plate.

The general purport of these three inscriptions, all of which are in pure Sanskrit, has been recognised by the two editors, but with the help of the facsimiles and in analogy to the dedicatory phrases of similar inscriptions their transcripts can be considerably corrected. I read and translate these inscriptions as follows:—

Dowson, No. 24:

- 1 Dêyadharmô=yam Sâkyabhikshôh Samgharakshi-
- 2 tasya [11\*] Yad=atra puṇya[m] tat=sarva-[sa]t[t\*]v[ânâm] [11\*]
- "This (is) the votive offering of the Sakya mendicant Samgharakshita. Whatever religious merit (there is) in this (act), it (belongs) to all sentient beings."

Rajendralala Mitra, No. 12; Dowson, No. 19:-

- 1 Dêyadharmô=yam Sâkyabhikshôr=Dharmadâsasya [11\*] Ya-
- 2 d=atra puṇya[mˈ ta]n=mâtâ-[pi]trô[h] sarva-sat[t\*]vânâ[m] cha [II\*]
- "This (is) the votive effering of the Sâkya mendicant Dharmadâsa. Whatever religious merit (there is) in this (act), it (belongs) to (his) parents and all sentient beings."

Rajendralala Mitra, No. 11; Dowson, No. 18:-

Dêyadharmô=yam Sâkyabhikshôr=bhadanta-Brahmasômasya [11\*] Yad=atra puṇyam tad=bhavatu sarvva-sat[t\*]vânâm anuttara-jñân-âvâptayê 11

"This (is) the votive offering of the Sâkya mendicant, the venerable Brahmasôma. Whatever religious merit (there is) in this (act), let it be for the attainment of supreme knowledge by all sentient beings."

The form of the letters, especially of the ma and na, point to the period of the Gupta rule at Mathura as the time of the engraving of these inscriptions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Gupta Inscriptions, Corp. Inser. Ind. Vol. III., p. 263, No. 63,

<sup>10</sup> I admit, however, that a similar ma, by the side of an older ma, is found already in a Mathurâ inscription dated in Sam. 83 of mahârôja Dêvaputra Huvishka; see above, p. 39, No. 9.

#### SOME ANGLO-INDIAN TERMS FROM A XVIITH CENTURY MS.

#### BY SIR RICHARD C. TEMPLE, BART.

(Continued from p. 89.)

#### LONGCLOTH.

- Fol. 31. Very Considerable quantities of these followings Commodities are here [Pettipolee] wrought and Sold to fforaign Merchants viz! Longecloth.
- Fol. 134. The most Proper and beneficiall Commodities wh are for this place [Janselone]: be blew Callicoes Vizt Longecloth.
- Fol. 158. ffrom y Coast of India and Choromandell are brought hither . . . Longcloth Salampore's, white and blew.

See Yule, s. v. Longcloth.

[N. and E. p. 17, for 6th May 1680: — "8000 Pagodas in Long Cloth and Salampores for England." P. 24 for 19th June 1680: — "Long cloth, ordinary; Long Cloth, fine."]

#### LOONGHEES.

- Fol. 31. Very Considerable quantities of these followings Commodities are here [Pettipolee] wrought and Sold to fforaign Merchants viz! . . . . . Lungees.
  - $F_{ol}$ . 49. This part of ye Countrey [Narsapore] affordeth plenty of . . . Lungees.
- $F_{ol.}$  91. The Ourias . . . are very poore, we are noe better habit then a Lungee, or a white cloth made fast about their waste.
  - Fol. 172. win a Sharpe Knife cutteth a hole in his drawers or lungee.

See Yule, s. v. Loonghee. [This word is worth pursuing much further. In Burma it is now a woman's petticoat, as well as man's dress. In the Army it means a turban: "50 Blue Lungis a/c Rs. 2-4-0 each: Rs. 112-8-0"— in a bill of the Port Blair Military Police for 30th Sept. 1900.]

#### LUPPOONE.

- $F_{ol}$ . 131. There are 3 Sea Ports Vpon this Island [Janselone] vizi . . . . . Luppoone.
- Fol. 132. our answers are all written downe in the King's booke, as alsoe ye Commander's name, and is Sent Vp to Luppoone (ye place of ye Radja's Residence) Which is ye Chiefe towne and in ye very middle of ye Jsland).
- Fol. 133. When wee come Vp to Luppoone, ye King's Servants that are appointed to waite upon us carry us to a house ye. . . . is indeed their temple of Jdols.
  - Fol. 135. Once when I was up att Luppoone.

Not in Yule. [I have not been able to trace the place in modern maps.]

#### MACAO.

Fol. 144. A Portuguees Shipp bound from Goa to Macau In China.

See Yule, s. v. Macao.

#### MACASSAR.

Fol. 158. The Borneo and Macassar Prows, for ye most part bringe Slaves both men, women, and Children.

See Yule, s. v. Macassar.

#### MACE.

- Fol. 53. The Mase of Achin 5 fanams 20 cash or 001b. 01s. 031d.
- Fol. 152. (In Queda) 4 Copans is one mace: 16 mace is one Taile.

Fol. 158. Some Commodities from England: . . . . most Especially good Spanish dollars Stamped 600 they passe Current at 5 masse p. dollar Some times 5: &  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Fol. 173. and if he wanted a mace or two at any time he wold Supply his wants.

See Yule, s. v. Mace. See ante, Vol. XXVII. p. 37 ff.

#### MADAPOLLAM.

Fol. 47. The English East India Company have a Very good ffactory [at Narsapore] called Madapollum from ye name of ye Villadge adjoyninge to it.

See Yule, s. v. Madapollam. [This quotation is valuable.]

#### MALABAR.

Fol. 157. Many Ships and Vessels doe att all Seasons of the yeare arrive in this Port from Severall places, namely Suratt: Malabar Coast or Coast of India: ffort S'! Georg's:... See Yule, s. v. Malabar. [This quotation is very valuable]

#### MALABAR.

- Fol. 3. The Natiue inhabitans are for ye most part . . . . . and Mallabars, many of wen line within ye Outermost walls of this place called ffort S'! Georg's.
- Fol. 23. A poor Sort of heathens call'd Mallabars . . . . . for ye most part of a very black colour not Vnlike in that to ye Ethiopians, but much comlier.
- Fol. 26. The Mallabars . . . doth much vary both in Customes of Idolatry Languadge and what else, . . . . besides they are a more dull headed people, few of them jngenuous in any art whatever, vizt.: ye Mallabars that reside Vpon this [Choromandel] Coast, but those Naturall Mallabars ye inhabit Vpon ye Mallabar Coast (commonly called ye Coast of India) are a very briske, ingenuous folke, but too bloody minded, . . . . but of no gentile Occupations, neither are they admitted into ye Society of ye Banjans or Gentues.
- See Yule, s. v. Malabar. [These quotations are valuable for the history of the term Malabar, as applied to the inhabitants of both the East and West Coasts of Southern India.]

#### MALACCA.

Fol. 144. but they (the portugueses) did not longe remaine in Slavery before they tooke a fitt Opportunitie to make their Escape, in a Prow well fitted: they tooke her in ye night & ranne away to Malacca a Dutch Garrison Vpon ye South Side of this Coast.

See Yule, s. v. Malacca.

#### MALAY.

- Fol. 131. but downe att y. Sea Ports most of y. Jnhabitants are Malayars, a very roguish Sullen ill natured people . . . . . . Villanies, when I my Selfe have knowne it to be y. Malayers themselves that dwell here namely in Banquala . . . . . have many cunninge places to hide themselves . . . . (Vpon y. Maine of y. Malay Shore).
- Fol. 138. Whereupon ye Malay inhabitants (a Very resolute people) stood up for ye Achiners. . . . for ye Malayars overpowred them.
- Fol. 143. Queda: A Kingdome (see called) Vpon y? Malay Coast. . . . as in Achia Johor &c: Malay Countries.
- Fol. 152. Pattanee . . . . lyinge on ye East Side of this great Neck of Land called ye Malay Coast.
  - Fol. 157. with infinite Numbers of Prows from y: Malay Shore.
- See Yule, s. v. Malay. [The quotations above given are useful as showing that the "Malay ye Coast" extended on both East and West sides of the Malay Peninsula.]

#### MALDIVES.

- Fol. 49. Cayre . . . y best Sort of woh is brought from the Maldiva Isles . . . . Cayre of y Maldiva grows Vpon a very brackish Soyle.
  - Fol. 77. ye rest 6 or 7 yearly goe to ye 12000: Islands called Maldiva.
- Fol. 79. Hee found 5 Saile of Bengala Ships in ye roade newly arrived from Ceylone and Maldivæ Inse.
  - Fol. 86. Cowries . . . are Small Shells brought from ye Islands of Malldiva.
- Fol. 94. [Cowries] seldome rise or fall more than 2 Pone in one Rupee and younge onely in Bullasore at you arrival of the Ships from Ins: Maldivæ.
- Fol. 95. neare ye mouth of ye Ganges, vpon my returne of a Voyadge to ye Maldivæ I lost 3 men by theire [tygers] Salvagenesse.

See Yule, s. v. Maldives.

#### MANGO.

- Fol. 29. y: Groves consistinge of Mangoe and . . . . . The Mangoe is a very faire and pleasant fruite.
  - Fol. 69. [Cuttack] adorned with . . . delicate Groves of Mango . . .
- Fol. 82. They (Portugals) make many Sorts of Sweetmeats viz! Mangoe . . . . Severall Sorts of Achar as Mangoe.
- Fol. 150. They have Severall Sorts of very good ffruit in the Countrey [Queda] . . . Mangoes.

See Yule, s. v. Mango.

#### MANGOSTEEN.

See Yule, s. v. Mangosteen.

#### MANIKPATAM.

Fol. 56. beinge a Very Secure Coast to harbour in, namely in . . . Manichapatam. Not in Yule. [On the Coromandel Coast.]

#### MANILLA.

Fol. 3. great Stores are transported and Vended into most places of note in India, Persia, Arabia, China, and ye South Seas [Indian Anchipelago], more Especially to Moneela one of ye Molucca Isles, belonginge to ye Kinge of Spaine.

Not in Yule.

#### MANNISON.

Fol. 153. they carry hence . . . . . Mannison (a Sort of honey).

Not in Yule. [The Malay word is manisan.]

#### MARTABAN JAR.

- Fol. 41. yo Other terrified win feare did runne his head into a great Mortavan Jarre.
- Fol. 93. wee had Severall Mortavan Iarrs on board.
- Fol. 158. ffrom Pegu . . . Motavan Jarrs.
- See Yule, s. v. Martaban. See also ante, Vol. XXII. p. 364.

#### MASULIPATAM.

Fol. 24. in my journey Anno Dom: 1672 from frort S't Georg's toward Metchlipatam overland.

- Fol. 35. Metchlipatam Soe called from ye Hindostan ore Moors Languadge word Metchli significinge fish and patam or Patanam a towne, first given to it by reason of ye Abundance of fish caught here for ye Supply of many countrey Cities and inland towns, for ye we it Still doth retains ye Said name, but of late years much increased by Merchandize, soe that ye fishinge trade is Very inconsiderable and not at all followed, more then by ye poore Mallabars or Gentues, whoe doe as yet in great plenty Supply this place and all ye Ships that frequent ye Roade.
- Fol. 38. Our ffactory here [Metchlipatam] is but a Subordinate One to ffort S'! Georg's: As that of y? Dutch is to Pullicat.
- Fol. 49. Metchlipatam . . . . beinge a great market place and indeed ye Great Bazar of these parts, for above 100 miles in Circuit.

See Yule, s. v. Masulipatam. [The quotations are curious as exhibiting the false etymology of the name from "fish." See ante, Vol. XXX. pp. 354, 397 f., for some of the many forms this place-name has assumed.]

#### MATT.

Fol. 94. They also Coyne Rupees here . . . called Gold Moors . . . beinge gold of ye highest Matt.

See Yule, s. v. Matt. Matt meant the "touch of gold." N. and E. has (p. 17) a good quotation for 6th May 1680: — "The payment or receipt of Batta or Vatum upon the exchange of Pollicat for Madras Pagodas prohibited, both coines being of one and the same Matt and weight, upon pain of forfeiture of 24 Pagodas for every offence together with loss of the Batta." For Batta, see ante, Vol. XXIX. p. 340.]

#### MAUND.

- - Fol. 82. 6: 7: and sometimes 8 maund of rice for one Rupee [at Hugly].
- Fol. 94. They weigh proper Maund . . . . but their weight in most places of accompt differ, although not in name yet in quantitie. The Ballasore Maund content 75 pound weight. The Hugly Maund content but 70 pound wt. Cossumbazar maund content 68 pound wt. Graine, butter, Oyle, or any liquid thinge all the River of Hugly over allows but 68 pt to yt maund. The Maund bigg or little is Equally divided into 40 Equall parts.
  - Fol. 98. Patellas, each of them will bringe downe 4: 5: 6000: Bengala maunds.

See Yule, s. v. Maund. [The quotations above are valuable for descriptions and weights of some of the old varieties of the maund.]

#### MECCA.

Fol. 51. ye last queen Mother that deceased, whose Bones after 7 years interred, were taken Vp and Sent to Mecha, there agains interred in ye Land of their Vngodlie Patron.

Not in Yule.

#### MEER RAJA.

Fol. 161. The Men in Office y! (Vnder their Queene) governe this Kingdome (Achin) are Fntitled as followeth: The Meer Raja: y? Lord Treasurer.

Not in Yule. Compare Meer Moonshee, also not in Yule.

#### MERCALL.

Fol. 53. Measures: . . . The Para cont [?] Markalls The Markall cont [?] [on the Choromandel Coast].

See Yule, s. v. Mercall. [It is a great pity that the text is incomplete here. The Mercall as a Madras measure of capacity varied a good deal.]

#### (To be continued.)

### THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE KAUPÎNA PANCHAKA OF SRÎ SANKARÂCHÂRYA.

#### BY G. B. SUBRAMIAH PANTULU.

#### I. - Text.

Veddnia vákyéshu sádá ramanthah, bhikshanna mairéna chathushti mantah, Visokamantah karanéramantah, kaupinavantah khalubhagyavantah.

#### Sense.

Those that are earnestly occupied in examining the deeper recesses of the *Upanishads* are satisfied with begging. As they are not pestered in this mortal penfold, their minds are ever engaged with things nobler and extra-mundane. They are therefore completely free from all cares and inquietudes Such unalloyed freedom has become the monopoly of these men and could not possibly be attained by those who are given up to the weaknesses of the flesh and the peculiar temptations of puberty.

#### Note.

The term kaupîna, though in common parlance used to mean 'a piece of cloth which covers the genital organs,' is here used in the sense of a terrestrial being who understands the âtman thoroughly. Cf. the saying of the Nirvânôpanishad: "Uḍâsîna kaupînam," and the saying of the Gîtâ: "Srêyo bhôktum bhaiksha mapiha lôkai."

#### II. - Text.

Mûlantharöh kêvala måsrayantah, pånidvayam bhökthu manthrayanthrah, Briyanscha kanthámiva kuthsayanthah, kaupînavantah khalubhägyavantah.

#### Sense.

They are rich, who, wholly void of desire of any sort or kind, follow the path of nil admirari, care not for any temporal wealth and spread themselves up under the umbrageous branches of trees.

It is within everybody's experience that the sordid lust of pelf emanates from the imperious sensations of hunger and sex. And people who have risen 'far above the madding crowd's ignoble strife 'cease to be enamoured of these brittle and transient joys, which the world can neither give nor take away.

#### Notes.

- (1) Cf. Mundakôpanishad: "Samána vrikshī purushônimagnô anīsayā śóchathi muhyamanah jushtam yaḍāpasyathyanya mīśa masya mahimana mithi vītha sokah."
  - (2) "Let none admire that riches grow in Hell, That soil may most deserve the precious bane."— Paradise Lost, Book I.
  - (3) "This man is freed from servile bands,
     Of hope to rise, or fear to fall.
     Lord of himself, though not of lands,
     Having nothing yet hath all."—Sir Henry Wotton's Happy Life.

#### III. - Text.

Dēhâthi bhávam parimárjayantah, átmánamátma nyavalôka yantah, Nántamnamadhyam nabahi smarantah, kaupina vantah khalubhágyavantah.

#### Sense.

He is called a jūdni (wise man), who has completely purged his mind of egoism and who identifies his internal self with the beginningless, endless, causeless Reality (i. e., Parabrahma).

#### Note.

Cf. the saying: "Sarvamkhalvidam brahma. Aham brahmasmi."

### IV. - Text.

Svánanda bháve parithushti mantah, sasánta sarvéndriyathruptimantah, Aharnisam brahmani yiramantah, kaupinavantah khalubhágyavantah.

#### Sense.

They are rich who feel and realize eternal bliss in a state of laya (introspective analysis), who know full well how much the pleasures of this life deceive and betray their unhappy votaries, and who therefore "week in, week out, from morn to night," concentrate their thought on Parabrahma.

#### Note.

"As men who climb a hill behold
The plain beneath them all unrolled,
And thence with searching eye survey
The clouds that pass along the way,
So those on Wisdom's mount who stand
A lofty vantage-ground command:
They thence can scan the world below,
Immersed in error, sin, and woe,
Can ask how mortals vainly grieve,
The true reject, the false receive,
The good forsake, the bad embrace,
The substance flee, and shadows chase;
But none who have not gained that height,
Can good and ill discern aright."—Sir Monier Monier-Williams'
Indian Wisdom.

#### V. - Text.

Panchiksharam pavana muchcharantah, pathin pa'sanam hruthi bhava yanthah. Bhikshasano thikshu paribhramantah, kaupina vantah khalubhagyavantah.

#### Sense.

They are jūdūis (wise men), who pervade the universe, who with an unalloyed mind rivet their attention for ever and a day on that Grand Master of all animate existences from protoplasm to man, — on Isvara, who eke out their livelihood by begging.

#### Note.

Cf. "Advaita bhávand bhaiksha mabhakshyam dvaita bhávanam, guru sástrókta bhávéna bhik-shōrbhaikshyam vidhíyatai." — Maitrdyôpanishad.

# ON SOME TERMS EMPLOYED IN THE INSCRIPTIONS OF THE KSHATRAPAS. BY SYLVAIN LÉVI.

Translated, with the author's permission and revision, from the "Journal Asiatique," 1902, I., pp. 95 to 125, under the direction of J. Burgess, C.I.E.

[The question as to the period when Sanskrit came to supersede the Prakrits for secular purposes, and as to the influences under which that happened, is one of considerable interest, from the historical as well as the literary point of view. Amongst the epigraphic records of India, the earliest known composition of appreciable length in pure literary Sanskrit is the Girnār inscription of A. D. 150 of the king Rudradāman, a member of a dynasty, ruling in Kāṭhiāwār and neighbouring parts, which is conveniently known as that of the Kshatrapas. In its leading characteristics, that inscription is unique, even amongst the records of that dynasty. But other records of the Kshatrapas, and some of the legends on their coins, exhibit a tendency in the direction of the employment of Sanskrit. On the other hand, in the records of other dynasties contemporaneous with the earlier Kshatrapas, Sanskrit exhibits itself in only isolated expressions of a religious or a ceremonious nature; for the same period, it is elsewhere met with only in short votive inscriptions of private individuals, which similarly belong to the religious category, and even in them in only a hesitating and uncertain form: and it is only when we come to the Imperial Gupta period, from A. D. 320 onwards, that we find Sanskrit of the well-established literary type in general use for public purposes. The conclusions are, that, curious as it may seem, the development of literary Sanskrit, and the supersession of the Prakrits by Sanskrit for official and other purposes, were brought about, not by indigenous Indian rulers, but by foreign invaders, the Kshatrapas; and that the explanation is to be found in a liberal-mindedness in matters of religion, which led those invaders to support a popular movement in the direction of utilising for general purposes a language which previously had been held so sacred that it could be employed only in connection with religion. This is the theme of the article by M. Sylvain Lévi, of which a translation is now offered. In revising the translation, M. Lévi has made a few additions to his original remarks. And, with these additions, the article may be regarded as an up-to-date exposition of a topic which is of very leading importance in connection with the early history of India. — Editor.]

The Kshatrapa kings who ruled over Kāṭhiāwār and the country beyond, from the year 78 to the end of the IVth century A. D., employ singular titles in their epigraphic protocol which demand attention. Beginning with Nahapāna, the founder of the dynasty (inscription of the minister Ayama at Junnar), they regularly take and receive the title of svāmin in epigraphic documents, which title, however, figures in the legends on their coins only after Yaśōdāman (254 of the Kshatrapa era). The inscription of Rudradāman at Girnār (72 Ksh.), in mentioning the name of Svāmi-Chashṭana, grandfather of the reigning prince, adds thereto the epithet sugṛihīta-nāman. And the Jasdan inscription (127 Ksh.), stating the genealogy of rāja mahākshatrapa svāmi Rudrasēna, joins to the name of each of his royal ancestors (Chashṭana, Jayadāman, Rudradāman, Rudrasimha) the epithet bhadramukha. With the exception of the Mahākūṭa inscription, mentioned further on, I do not know another instance, elsewhere in Indian epigraphy, in which any of these three titles [96] is applied to a royal personage. But all three are found in a special category of literary productions where, on the contrary, their use is absolutely definite.

Bharata, the legislator of the theatre and everything pertaining to the same, treating of those appellations in use in dramatic language, prescribes:

svāmī tu yuvarājas tu kumārō bhartņidārak 1 li saumya *bhadramukhēty* ēvam hēpūrvam vādhamam vadēt 11 [*Nāṭṇa-śāstra*, xvii. p. 75.] But this text, borrowed from the Nirnaya-sagar edition (Kavya-mālā collection), is almost inexplicable. The Daśa-rūpa, which follows and sums up Bharata, says:—

dēvah svāmīti nripatir bhrityair bhattēti chādhamaih 1

[ii. 64.]

And the Sahitya-darpana, § 431: -

The comparison of the texts enables us to obtain some clear sense. Evidently the reading svāmīti of the Sāhitya-darpaṇa must be substituted for Bharata's inadmissible svāmī tu, and the obscure precept "hēpurvan vādhaman vadēt" must be interpreted by the aid of the words: "adhamais tu kumārakaḥ" supplied by the Sāhitya-darpaṇa. From this we arrive at the following rule:—

"The crown-prince must be addressed as svāmin, a prince of the [97] royal family as saumya or bhadramukha; with the addition of he, one may also in the same way address a personage of inferior rank" (Bh.). But the Sah.-D. modifies the latter precept: "People of inferior rank may also address children in this manner." The English translation of the Sāhitya-darpaņa gives a different interpretation to the latter part of this line: "A prince is addressed by low men - 'Saumya' (gentle sir) or 'Bhadramukha' (you of benign face);" and I have followed this interpretation in my Théâtre Indien (p. 129). It was at that time impossible to refer to the then unpublished text of Bharata; but in fact, in this interpretation, the word kumārakah became superfluous and unjustifiable; it repeated the kumārō of the first half line, with the addition of a suffix of which no notice was taken. The modification introduced by the Sāhitya-darpaṇa into Bharata's traditional text, as attested by manuscripts of various origin, is doubtless founded on the use of the words saumya and bhadramukha in certain passages in dramas, e. g., Mrichchhakațikā, Act X. p. 160, l. 14 (Stenzler's ed.), where the vidūshaka, addressing the little Rohasena, says to him: tuvaradu tuvaradu bhaddamuho. Pidā dē māridum nādi. On the other hand, Bharata's precept is applicable to a use equally attested by the Mrichchhakatika, and in the same passage (p. 161, l. ult.): the vidushaka addresses himself this time to the Chandalas who are conducting Chardatta to torture: bho bhaddamuha munchedha piavaassam. We [98] here obtain a clear idea of the processes of minute and persistent observation which serve as a basis to the general formulæ of the theorists of Hindū literature.

The Daśa-rūpa, slavishly followed by the Sāhitya-darpaṇa, gives yet another use of the appellation svāmin which Bharata appears to have ignored. According to this, courtiers should employ it in addressing the king.

If we follow the more important indications of Bharata, the two titles of svāmin and bhadramukha are confined to personages who come immediately after the king in rank, i. e. the crown prince and royal princes. The extension of the latter title to persons of inferior rank, and the application of it to children by people of inferior rank, are casualities which threaten titles of high nobility in all societies and in all times; the people sneer at them, turn them into ridicule till the moment when, deprived of their primitive dignity, they become definitively degraded. It is enough to recall in classic language what happens in the case of the word hère, "Herr," and in popular dialect the value of the expressions: "My Prince!" and "My Emperor!" Without leaving India, the history of the word dēvānāmpriya which I have already had occasion to study, constitutes a notable precedent; the majestic title which sufficiently designated the powerful Aśōka, master of the whole of India, has, in classic Sanskrit, taken the sense of "silly fellow, imbecile."

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[99] In neither of the editions of the Petersburg dictionary, is there a single passage quoted from dramatic literature in which the appellations srāmin and bhadramukha are employed in their proper sense as defined by Bharata. It does not even mention the particular function of the vocative srāmin. As for bhadramukha used as an apostrophe, the first edition refers: 1st, to the scholiast on Panini, vi. 2, 167, who certainly, in support of the rule laid down for the accentuation of mukha in compounds, cites the word bhadramukha; but Pāṇini does not mention this word himself, and the Mahābhāshya passes the sūtra over in silence; — 2ndly, in the Markandēya-Purāna, 15, 57, where it is a king who uses this expression in addressing a messenger of death (Yama-purusha), with the probable intention of neutralising by an euphemism the unfortunate character of this funereal personage: - 3rdly, in Sakuntalā, 103, 10 and 17 (and add 104, 15); the old anchorite, who accompanies the little Bharata, salutes the king Dushyanta with this word, but without knowing whom she is addressing, and taking him for a casual guest. The word bhadramukha has equally the value of a formula of common politeness in the passages of the Daśa-kumāra, 74, 20, = ed. Nirnaya-sāgar, 64, 1, and of the Kādambari, 2, 100. 5; 127, 21; 128, 24 = Peterson's ed., 328, 13; 354, 10; 355, 13, which the second edition of the Petersburg dictionary quotes; the translation given by M. Böhtlingk: "dear friend, dear friends," is sufficiently exact. We may cite also the Divyāvadāna (ed. Cowell and Neil), p. 431, where the king Aśōka, near death, fallen and powerless, and having at his disposal nothing more than half a myrobalan fruit, calls a man of low rank (purusha) in order to ask him to take that last present to the Kukkutārāma: — Bhadramukha pūrvaguṇānurāgād bhrashtaiśvaryasyāpi mama imam tāvad apaschimam vyāpāram kuru. And the index of the Divyāvadāna, presenting the word bhadranukha as "a vocative addressed to any inferior," gives a variety of other references for its use in that way in that work.

The title sugritita-nāman, applied in the [100] Girnār inscription to Chashṭana, there forms the counterpart to the formula: "gurubhir=abhyastanāman," applied to Rudradāman himself, and which has the advantage of rhyming with the name of the king. Bühler (Die Indischen Inschriften und das Alter der Indischen Kunstpoesie, p. 53) translates the latter expression by: "the venerable ones pronounce his name (in praying for salvation)." The expression seems to imply a still more precise sense. The verb abhyas evokes in a certain way the study of the Vēdas; cf., e. g., Manu, iv. 147; vi. 95; Yājñavalkya, iii. 204. And the mention of the gurus determines the sense still more certainly; the name of the Kshatrapa Rudradāman is for holy personages like another Vēda which demands assiduous study. absolute veneration, and which assures the most precious results. The idea, thus disengaged, harmonizes as we shall see with the general data of our inscriptions. As for sugrihīta-nāman, Bühler translates it as a general term by "the utterance of his name brings salvation," agreeing with Böhtlingk's interpretation of this word (P. D.): — "the simple utterance of his name brings happiness."

Sugṛihīta-nāman, like svāmin and bhadramukha, belongs to the formulary of the theatre and things relating to it. As a matter of fact, the definition of the word is not found in the actual text of Bharata; but the Daśa-rūpa [101] and the Sāhitya-darpaṇa mention this expression and agree as to the interpretation:—

rathī sūtēna chāyushman pūjyaiḥ śishyātmajānujāḥ vatsēti tātaḥ pūjyō'pi sugrihītābhidhas tu taiḥ II apiśabdāt pūjyēna śishyātmajānujās tātēti vāchyāḥ I sō'pi tais tātēti sugrihītanāma chētī [Daśa-rūpa, ii. 63.]

sugrihitābhidhah pūjyah sishyādyair vinigadyatē

[Sahitya-darpana, § 431.]

<sup>&</sup>quot;Sugritta-nāman is an expression used by a disciple, a son, or a younger brother to designate a person to whom he owes respect," consequently to name respectively the master, the father, the elder.

The first edition of the Petersburg dictionary cites a very different definition of the same word borrowed from the Trikāṇda-śēsha, ii. 7, 27:—

yah prātah smaryatē subhakāmyayā I sa sugrihītanāmā syāt.

"The sugrihitanāman is a person whom one recalls in the morning with a kindly intention." But examination of the examples which I am about to cite, proves beyond doubt that the text of the  $Trik\bar{a}ida-śę̃sha$  is faulty, whoever may be responsible for the fault, and that it must be corrected thus:—

yah prētah smaryatē . . . . .

"The sugrihitanāman is a deceased person whom one remembers with favour."

The interpretation given by the Daśa-rūpa and the Sāhitya-darpaṇa on the one hand, and by the Trikāṇḍa-śēsha on the other, are both [102] justified in literature. The author of the Mrichchhakatikā adopts the first. In Act ii., p. 28, l. 33, Stenzler's ed., the courtesan Vasantasēnā demands from her servant Madanikā the name of a person whom she has met: Madanikā replies:—

so kkhu ajjuē sugahidaņāmahēo ajjachārudatto ņāma.

"His name is Chārudatta," accompanying the mention of this name by the word sugritation nāmadhēya as a title of respect. We find it used again in the same manner in Act ix, by the mother of Vasantasēnā when the judge asks her the name of the friend of the courtesan:—

Sāaradattassa taṇao sugahidaṇāmahēo ajja Chārudatto (142, 10). "It is the son of Sāgaradatta, the noble Chārudatta sugrihīta-nāmadhēya."

The author of the *Mudrā-rākshasa*, who is inspired by the *Mrichchhakaļikā*, has borrowed this title from him with the same import. Telang's ed., Bomb. Ser. p. 35; the disciple of Chāṇakya, who has been asked the name of the master of the house, replies:—

asmākam upādhyāyasya sugrihītanāmna ārya Chāņakyasya. "It is our master, the noble Chāņakya sugrihītanāman."

And, p. 111, the chamberlain, in proclaiming the royal command, expresses himself thus: — sugṛihītanāmā dēvaś Chandraguptō vaḥ samājūāpayati.

"His majesty Chandragupta sugṛihīta-nāman desires it."

[103] The authentic works of Bana show a preference for the (so to say) funereal meaning f the title.

Kādambarī, Peterson's ed., Bomb. Ser. 35, 12: —

ēvam uparatē 'pi sugṛihītanāmni tātē yad aham . . . prānımi | "If I breathe when my father sugṛihīta-nāman 18 dead."

And p. 309, 18 and 22, Mahāśvētā, recalling twice her dead husband, designates him by these words: —

dēvasya sugrihītanāmnah Puņdarīkasya (smarantī) dēvah sugrihītanāmā Puņdarīkah.

In the *Harsha-charita*, Rājyavardhana, citing to his brother, as an example, their father's conduct at the death of their grandfather, expresses himself thus: --

tātēnaiva . . . sugrihītanāmni tatrabhavati parāsutām gatē pitari kim nākāri rājyam.

(Nirņaya-sāgar ed., 200, 1)

"And our father [tāta, in conformity with the prescriptions of Bharata], did he not take the government in hand on the death of his father [pitar] sugrihita-nāman."

In the present instance, the use of the word sugrifita-nāman coincides exactly with its function in the inscription of Rudradāman. In both cases it is a question of designating honourably a grandfather who has possessed royal power.

So, also, the king Harsha himself, remembering his deceased brother-in-law, in the same way attaches the epithet to his name:—

tatrabhavatah sugrihitanāmnah svargatasya Grahavarmanah bālamitram (p. 261, botttom).

"The boy friend of the dead Grahavarman sugrihitanāman."

And epigraphy gives, for the period of Bāṇa, an instance precisely parallel with that of its tunction in the inscription of Rudradāman. In the Mahākūta pillar inscription of A. D. 602, the genealogy of Maṅgalēśa, the reigning king, allots the title to his grandfather Raṇarāga, and to him only:—sugrihītanāmadhēyō Raṇarāgākhyanṛipaḥ; see Ind. Ant. Vol XIX. p 16, text line 3.

Meanwhile, the Harsha-charita offers some examples of the [104] same word, used simply in the honorific sense without any funereal idea: —

mām apī tasya dēvasya sugrihītanāmnah Saryātasyājñākāriņam . . . avadhārayatu bhavatī (30, 6) "Know that I am the servant of the king sugrihīta-nāman Saryāta."

So, again, Bana connects the title with Harsha himself, when his hearers press him to relate the history of that king:—

asya sugṛihītanāmnaḥ puṇyarāśēḥ . . . . charitam ichchhāmaḥ śrōtuṁ (p. 101) "We wish to hear the achievements . . . . of this sugṛihītanāman, rich in merit."

And he does the same in the speech of Rājyaśrī, when she is on the point of mounting the funeral pile, in introducing the unexpected arrival of Harsha:—

Kurangikē kēna sugrihītanāmnō nāma grihītam amrītamayam āryasya (p. 278) "O Kurangikā! who is it that has uttered the ambrosial name of our lord, sugrihītanāman?"

The poet of the Rāja-taraṅgiṇā couples the title sugṛihāta-nāman with the name of a king (Lalitādītya), who has just died, in a passage where the author does not speak in his own name but where he quotes the words of the prime minister of the dead king. Chaṅkuṇa assembles all the subjects and proclaims to them (iv. 362):—

sugrihītābhidhō rājā gatah sa sukritī divam.

"The king, sugrihītābhīdha, the beneficent, has gone to heaven."

The exact sense of this expression, too often rendered by rather vague formulæ ('of auspicious name, auspiciously named,' &c.), seems capable of being more clearly expressed. The verb grah, which generally signifies "to take," signifies when associated with words such as nāman, &c.: "to use, mention, cite." We have one instance of that usage in the last passage quoted above from the Harshacharita. And in the Uttara-Rāmacharita of Bhavabhūti. Rāma, who has just resolved to put away Sītā, invokes the Earth, Janaka, Sugrīva, the gods, the heroes, and adds:—

tē hi manyē mahātmānah kritaghnēna durātmanā l mayā grihītanāmānah sprisyanta iva pāpmanā ll (Act I., near the end) "But indeed I think that those great ones are contaminated by having their names mentioned by me so ungrateful and wicked."

The idea attaching to the "mention of the name" is clearly manifested by a prescription of Manu, viii. 271: "An iron nail, ten inches long and red-hot, must be driven into the mouth of him who mentions insultingly the names and castes of the twice-born." (For example, say the [105] commentators, if the culprit has said: re Yajñadatta!, or again: You are the outcast of the Brāhmans!)

nāma-jāti-graham tv ēshām abhidrōhēņa kurvataļ.

The sugrahana is the contrary custom; it is to mention the name of a person, more especially a dead person, accompanied with qualifications which bring good fortune and which, thanks to their value as omens, may have a happy influence on the posthumous destiny of the deceased or on the future destiny of the living.

The official value of the expression bhadramukha, as a title addressed to royal princes, seems to assign respectable antecedents to this common formula. In fact it appears difficult to separate this appeal to the "propitious face" from an analogous title illustrated by a famous example. Bhadramukha is without doubt only another form of the idea expressed by the word Priyadarśin, Prākṛit Piyadassi, that is to say "he who shews himself amiable, who has an amiable aspect." While the Kshatrapas are granted the epithet of bhadramukha, the king Sātakarṇi Gōtamīputra, the contemporary, neighbour, rival, and conqueror of the Kshatrapas, receives in a posthumous panegyric the epithet, still surviving, of piyadasana (Skr. priyadarśana) [Nāsik Praśasti, l. 4]. The formula dēvān ampiya piyadasi lāya of the Aśōka inscriptions would then be solely made up of general designations assumed in the protocol, without a word relating individually [106] to the author of the inscriptions, and there would be no more cause, in spite of custom, to speak of a king Piyadasi than of a king Dēvānāmpriya. Aśōka, whatever may have been his motives, must have intentionally avoided inserting his own name in the text of his inscriptions.

Besides the three terms which I have just noticed, the inscriptions of the Kshatrapas contain yet another characteristic expression which has passed into the dramatic and literary language. Rudradāman, recalling the origin of the reservoir which he has had repaired, attributes its foundation to Pushyagupta, the rāshṭriya of Chandragupta the Maurya. The rāshṭriya is cited by the Mahā-Bhārata, xii., 3205 and 3269, among the high functionaries who assist the king. The dictionary of Amara, however, does not consider this word as a term in actual use; he defines it as a title of the king's brother-in-law, in dramatic language:—

[nāṭyōktau] rājaśyālas tu rāshṭriyaḥ [L, 1, vii., 14].

Hēmachandra repeats this definition: -

rāshtriyō nripatēh syālah (v. 333).

In fact the word  $r\bar{a}shtriya$  is found, with the sense indicated, in the  $Sakuntul\bar{a}$  and in the  $Mrichchhakatil\bar{a}$ . In Act vi. of  $Sakuntal\bar{a}$  the king's brother-in-law appears in the prologue with two policemen who are his subordinates. The stage directions simply [107] bear: tatah pravisati  $n\bar{a}garikah$  syālah . . . . When the police speak to him, they give him the title of  $\bar{a}vutta$  which is, in dramatic terminology, equivalent to  $bhagin\bar{i}$ -pati, "the husband of the sister" (of the king). But, in the scene following, when the two servants of the palace mention him in their conversation (Bohtlingk, 79, 2), he is designated as  $Mitt\bar{a}vasu$  ratthiya, "the  $r\bar{a}shtriya$   $Mitr\bar{a}vasu$ ." In the  $Mrichchhakatik\bar{a}$  also, where the śakāra is mentioned either with honour or contempt, he is designated as the  $r\bar{a}shtriya$  (Stenzler's ed., 66, 23; 154, 11; 175, 5). After the downfall of king Pālaka, the men who drag the śakāra before Chārudatta to receive his punishment, combine  $r\bar{a}shtriya$  and  $sy\bar{a}laka$  in addressing him:—

arē rē rāshļriya-śyālaka I ēhy ēhi I svasyāvinayasya phalam anubhava (175, 10).

There are then, these four words: svāmin, bhadramukha, sugṛihīta-nāman, rāshṭriya, which, by the formal avowal of the legislators of the Sanskrit literature and language, are classed in the particular category of words foreign to current custom and maintained solely in the formulæ accepted by dramatic and romantic etiquette; and, with the exception of the use of sugṛihītanāmadhēya in the Mahākūṭa inscription, these four words are met with, set apart to an actual positive use, in the Sanskrit inscriptions of the Kshatrapas, and of the Kshatrapas only. The title of svāmin, it is true, is to be found in another series of epigraphical documents; besides the inscriptions where it is [108] sporadically joined to the name of the princes of another dynasty of Mahā-kshatrapas, those of Mathurā (Mora, Arch. Survey, Vol. XX. p. 48; mahakshatrapasa Rajubulasa putra svāmiva . . .; Mathurā, Epigr. Ind. Vol. II. p. 199; svāmisa mahākshatrapasa Sōḍāsasa): it is joined to the names of the

Sātakarņis from Gōtamiputa onwards: svāmi Gōtamiputa siri Sadakaņi, Nāsik 11: sāmi siri Pulumāva, Nāsik 12, Karli 17; Amarāvati, pl. lvi. 1; svāmi Vāsithīputa, Nāsik 15; sāmi siri Yaña, Nāsık 16, Kanhēri 4 and 15; Madhariputa svāmi Sakasēna, Kanhēri 14, 19. But from Gōtamiputa onwards, the Sāṭakarņis are in close relation with the Kshatrapas; I have already pointed this out and I shall return to it. The simultaneous use of the same title in the edicts of the two dynasties, far from weakening the conclusions which I hope to establish, confirms the same. Before becoming fixed, with the stiffness of dead forms, in the vocabulary of theatrical and literary conventions, these titles have, of necessity, done duty in actual life. The first writers who transported them into the domain of fiction, did not invent them, thanks to the miracle of a chance coincidence; nor did they go and exhume them out of the past, with an archæological care which India has never known; they borrowed them from current language and bequeathed them to their successors who have preserved them with pious fidelity, whilst political events were transforming the official protocol around them.1

[109] But the literary language of politeness is, in Sanskrit at least, inseparable from literary language itself; they are one; the same inflexible code rules both. The dramatic forms which gathered and perpetuated these appellations must therefore have been established at the time when these appellations themselves were in force in official etiquette. It is in the time of the Kshatrapas, and at the court of the Kshatrapas, that we acknowledge their simultaneous existence; it must therefore have been in the time and at the court of the Kshatrapas that the vocabulary, the technique and the first examples of the Sanskrit drama and everything connected with it were established; or, in other words, those of the really literary Sanskrit literature.

The facts which I have stated, even if my interpretation of them be correct, are in danger of appearing insufficient as a foundation for conclusions of so large extent. But a group of important signs tends, on the other hand, to equally assign the foundation of literary Sanskrit to the epoch and court of the Kshatrapas. All Indianists know that the first inscription in literary Sanskrit is precisely the inscription of the mahā-kshatrapa Rudradāman at Girnār, of which I have several times made mention in the course of this article; it is dated in the year 72 of the Kshatrapa era, = 150 A. D. The inscription of Ushavadāta, son-in-law of the kshatrapa Nahapāna, which is earlier than the year 46 Ksh. ( = 124 A. D.) contains, it is true, a long panegyric by way of introduction, in which the gifts and pious [110] works previously due to the zeal of Ushavadāta (Nāsik, 5), are celebrated in Sanskrit; but on arriving at the precise announcement of the new gift commemorated by this inscription, the language changes: Sanskrit disappears and is replaced by Prākrit. The other inscriptions of the time of Nahapāna. those of Ushavadāta at Nāsik, 7, 8, 9, dated 42 Ksh. (= 120 A. D.) and 45 Ksh. (= 123 A. D.), those of Dakshamitrā, wife of Ushavadāta and daughter of Nahapāna (Nāsik, 10), that of Ayama, minister of Nahapāna (Junnar, 11), are all in Prākrit. After Rudradāman the known inscriptions of the Kshatrapas are all in Sanskrit: those of Rudrasimha at Gunda, 102 or 103 Ksh. (= 180 or 181 A. D.), and at Jünagadh, and of Rudrasena at Jasdan, 127 Ksh. ( = 205 A.D.) and in  $\overline{O}$ khamandal, 122 ? Ksh. ( = 200 A. D.).

bālā syād vāsūḥ ৷ ity Amaraḥ ৷ yat tv asya nāṭya ēva prayēga uchitō nātyavargapāṭhāt tan na ! tatranyayogavyavachchhēdakatvāt I nātya ētēshām ēva prayogo nānyēshām iti I ata ēva kāvyē'pi nātyavargasthān dēvyādiśabdān prāyunkta Kālidāsaḥ

brāhmē muhurtē kila tasya dēvī

kumārakalpam sushuvē kumāram iti II

<sup>1</sup> If I am reproached with extending to all the literature conclusions based on the employment of certain words which the Sanskrit lexicons class under the language of the theatre, I content myself with referring to Sivarama, the commentator of the Daśa-kumāra-charita, who, meeting in Dandin's text (uchchhvasa I., ed Nirnaya-sagar, pp. 30, 178) with the word  $v\bar{a}s\bar{u}$ , remarks as follows:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;It may perhaps be said that the word  $v\overline{a}s\overline{u}$  is reserved for the language of the theatre, since Amara classes it in the section treating of the dramatic art. But that would be a mistake. Amara only betokens by that that the words of that category ought to be employed in the theatre, to the exclusion of others. Thus we see that Kalidasa employs in poetry (kavya) such words as devi, &c., which with Amara figure in the section treating of the dramatic

By a striking contrast and one which gives cause for reflection, the dynasty of the Sātakarņis, so closely mixed up with the history of the Kshatrapas, their neighbours and rivals, has all its epigraphy inscribed in Prākrit. From the inscriptions of Nānāghāt, which date back to the beginning of the Christian era or further still, down to the last princes of the dynasty, Siri Yaña Gōtamiputa, Māḍhariputa, Sakasēna, Hāritiputa, towards the third century A. D., Prākrit is the only language admitted into the epigraphic documents of the Sātakarṇis. There is only one exception, but it is significant: an inscription of Kaṇheri (11) is written in excellent Sanskrit; it is due to the minister of a [111] princess married to Vāsishthīputra Sātakarṇi, and daughter of a mahākshatrapa, probably the mahā-kshatrapa Rudradāman whom I have named so often already ([Vā]sishthīputrasya śrīsāta[karn]īsya dēvyāh Kārddamakarājaranisaprabhavāyā mahākshatra[pa]Ru.putryāh . . . śya . . . v[i]śvasyasya amātyasya śatērakasya pānīyabhājānain dēyadharm[m]a[h]). It is the intervention of a daughter of a Kshatrapa, introduced by a political marriage into the family of the Sātakarṇis, which makes in their epigraphy an opening for Sanskrit which immediately closes again.

The linguistic opposition between the two dynasties is still further established by their literary role. Rudradaman, in his inscription, praises himself, or lets himself be praised, for his ability to compose, in prose as in verse, works which satisfy all the exigencies of rhetoric (sphuļa-laghu-madhurachitra-kānta-sabda-samayōdārālamkrita-gadya-padya . . . ); and the evidence of the inscription itself leads us to believe that Sanskrit compositions are referred to. The Satakarnis, on the contrary, are the traditional patrons of Prakrit literature. Hala or Satavahana, one of the kings of the dynasty, is believed to have compiled the polite anthology in seven 'hundreds' which has preserved for us the charming remains of ancient Mahārāshtrī poetry. It is a minister of Sātavāhana, Guṇāḍhya, who is supposed to be the author of the original Brihatkathā, written in paisāchī Prākrit. Another minister of the same prince, it is true, is said to have composed one of the classical Sanskrit grammars, the Kātantra; [112] but the details of the legend seem to represent the historical reality with tolerable exactness. King Sātavāhana, playing with his wives, is spoken to by one of them in Sanskrit; not knowing this language, he makes a mistake which occasions humiliating laughter; mortified, he demands of his ministers a Sanskrit grammar less difficult to study than Pāṇini; and Sarvavarman, to please him, composes the Kātantra. This anecdote, shewing the king ignorant of Sanskrit and the queen speaking this language, recalls the anomaly observed between the Sanskrit inscription due to the minister of the princess married to Vasithiputa and the Prakrit inscriptions of king Vāsithiputa himself. The name of the king Sātavāhana is, as it were, a sort of symbol, adopted and consecrated by tradition to sum up the whole dynasty of the Sātakarnis.

The pretended ignorance of Satavahana is an arbitrary invention of the legend. If they did not personally cultivate Sanskrit, it was easy for the Sātakarnis to attract to their court of Pratishthana, men of letters practised in the use of the Brahmanic language; there was no lack of Brahmans around a dynasty which paid them the magnificent salaries registered in the great inscription at Nanaghat; the scribes who wrote in Prakrit the royal panegyrics such as the inscription of Gotami at Nasik, needed but a small effort to turn their praises into Sanskrit; they touch so closely upon Sanskrit that they seem rather to guard against it than [113] to try to write it; but they resolutely avoid overstepping the precise limit which separates their Prakrit from classical Sanskrit. The first infraction upon this reserve is found outside the real domain of the Satakarnis, among the Pallavas, settled immediately to the south of the Satakarnis. The early Pallavas, Šivaskandavarman and Vijayabuddhavarman, used Prākrit in their epigraphs; but Sivaskandavarman, who rivals in Brahmanic zeal the Sātakarņis of the Nanaghat inscription, and who, like them, flatters himself with having offered the great asvamedha-sacrifice, admits at the end of his Prakrit charter a formula in Sanskrit: Svasti gō-brāhmaņa-vāchaka-śrōtribhya iti (Epigr. Ind. Vol. I. p. 3; Vol. II. p. 482). The accuracy of it is irreproachable; the peculiar character of it is evident; this benediction pronounced over Brahmans and cows, &c., has a religious character which contrasts with the real object of the gift. Vijayabuddhavarman, at the end of a donation, equally set forth in Prākrit (Ind. Antiq. Vol. IX. p. 101), inserts two verses in Sanskrit and concludes with a Prākrit formula; these two verses are those so often met with under the name of Vyāsa in all succeeding epigraphy; Bahubhir vasudhā . . . and Svadattām paradattām va. Here again, the authority of Vyāsa gives these two verses a religious character, independent of the context. And more recent contributions to epigraphy only confirm my conclusions. In the Kondamudi plates (Epigr. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 315) of the prince Jayavarman, a contemporary of Sivaskandavarman, the charter is in Prākrit, but the names of the god Mahēśvara and of the brahmanical gotra Brihatphalāyana are in pure Sanskrit and so also is the legend on the seal : — Brihatphalāyanasagotrasya mahārāja-śrī-Jayavarmmaņah. And, like his Hīrahaḍagalli plates, the Mayidavolu plates of Sivaskandavarman (Epigr. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 84) are in Prākrit, and the name of the king is written Sivakha[m]davammo ; but the seal presents Sivakka . . . . , which suffices to establish the purely Sanskrit character of its legend. It is as a religious language that Sanskrit makes its appearance in the official epigraphy, apart from the epigraphy of the Kshatrapas. It is met with also, but hesitating, uncertain and [114] very brief, in the votive inscriptions of the time of the Kushanas and the Kshatrapas of Mathurā: but these inscriptions, of Buddhist and Jaina inspiration, emanating from private individuals, reduce themselves to brief formulæ, and when, by accident, they happen to be correct, they only succeed by dint of their extreme brevity and their entire commonplaceness.

The presence of phrases and formulæ in correct Sanskrit, inserted in Prākrit inscriptions or added to them, expressly contradicts the interpretation given by the legend to the linguistic preferences of the Sātakarņis. Even when confined to their own direct testimony without recourse to any outside control, the documents of the Kshatrapas suffice to prove it in error. Whereas, by a revolutionary innovation, their inscriptions are set forth in literary Sanskrit, the legends of their numerous coins are uniformly written in Präkrit, as in the case of the Sātakarņis. It is only when we come down to the Gupta emperors, in the IVth century A. D., that we meet with the first legends on coins in authentic Sanskrit (e.g., Kāchō gām avajitya karmabhir uttamair jayati). One only of the Kshatrapas, in advance of the time, coined money in Sanskrit, about the beginning of the second century of the Kshatrapa era, at the end of the second century A. D.; the legend reads: rājāō [ma]hākshatra[pa]sya Dāmajadaśriya[ḥ] putrasya rājījō kshatrapasya Satyadāmna[h]. The only inaccuracy bears upon the application of an euphonic law: [115] rājñō kshatrapasya instead of rājñaķ. But the innovation, which however does not appear very daring in a dynasty which regularly uses Sanskrit in its epigraphy, does not seem to have been a success; it called forth no imitations, and, whereas the coins of the Kshatrapas are generally rather numerous, that of Satyadaman is known by but one specimen (Rapson, J. R. A. S. 1899, p. 379). Without the formal testimony of epigraphy, one would be tempted to recognize in the numismatic usage of the Kshatrapas the same tendency to Sanskrit that has been observed in the inscriptions of Mathura. Two centuries after Satyadaman, in 304 Ksh. (= 382 A. D.), the coinage of Simhasēna, known by several specimens, bears a legend where Sanskrit and Prākrit alternate curiously in the same inscription: Mahārāja-kshatrapasvāmi-Rudrasēna-śvasriya[sya] rājñō mahākshatrapasa svāmi-Simhasēnasya (Rapson, ib. p. 398-400). And besides, the simultaneous occurrence of Prākrit genitives in °sa and the Sanskrit forms rajino and kshatrapa in the whole monetary series of the Kshatrapas without exception, the sporadic appearance of the most delicate inflexions of Sanskrit in certain proper names (e.g., Rudradāmnaķ parallel with Rudradāmasa, Dāmajadaśriyaķ parallel with Dāmajadasa), still place under different aspects the pressing problem of the real relation between Sanskrit and Prākrit, — or, in other words, the positive commencements of literary Sanskrit.

The religious element which dominates all the phenomena [116] of Hindu life seems to suffice to settle all these apparent contradictions. The opposition observed in linguistic usage between the Kshatrapas and the Sātakarņis reappears in the religious attitude of the two dynasties. There can be no question, assuredly, in ancient India, of determined, absolute,

uncompromising convictions; the avowed and officially proclaimed predilection does not amount to a passion, still less to intolerance. Although they profess themselves fervent worshippers of Bhagavat, of Mahēśvara, of Sugata, &c. (parama-bhāgavata, po-māheśvara po-saugata), the Gupta kings, those of Valabhi, the race of Harsha, and many other royal families, distribute none the less their eclectic favours among all the clergy and all confessions (see, e.g., mv Donations religieuses des rois de Valabhi, in the Mémoires de la section des Sciences religieuses. 1896, pp. 75-100). Without refusing to Buddhism the freedom of circumstance, the Satakarņis proclaim their pretensions to Brahmanical orthodoxy. Their epigraphy opens at Nānāghāt with a long nomenclature of grand Vedic sacrifices and magnificent salaries paid to Brāhmans by a prince of their family. From Gotamiputa onwards, at least, each of the kings is careful to affirm his relationship to the great Brahmanic clans: Gotamiputra, Vāsishthīputra, &c. Gōtamiputa, the hero of the Nāsik praśasti, is exalted as "the Brāhman par excellence" (ēka-bamhana); he has increased the prosperity [117] of the families of the Brāhmans (dirāvara-kuṭuba-vivadbana); he has accomplished the fundamental and essential work of Brahmanism, by putting a stop to confusion among the castes which is the abomination of desolation in society governed by Brahmanic law (vinivatita-chātuvaņa-sakara); the models which he recalls are the heroes of the Brahmanic epic: Rāma, Kēśava, Arjuna, Bhīmasēna, Janamējaya, Sagara, Yayāti, Nahusha. The Purāṇas also have faithfully enrolled the list of Sātakarṇi kings in the succession of the dynasties which represent across the dislocation of Indian history the orthodox transmission of sovereign power.

The Kshatrapas, on the contrary, are strangers, chance-masters imposed by the conquest; of Scythian origin confounded with the Greeks, with whom tradition continually associates them (Saka-Yavama), they have introduced into India the great religious indifference which characterises their race, which manifests itself in the Helleno-Irano-Indian pantheon of the coins of the Kushanas as well as in the universal religiousity of the Mogul Akbar. It is not upon them that the Brahmans must count for the restoration of their influence; their mere presence in power is an insult to orthodoxy. Buddhism, on the other hand, greets and welcomes with favour these curious and childish barbarians, always ready to adopt a new faith without abandoning their ancient gods, happy and flattered to naturalize their families and their gods in the classic soil of fabulous riches and of the [118] all-powerful magi; it satisfies therewith its thirst for propagation, its ardour for apostleship; it preaches its holy truths to them, its ideal of gentleness and charity. Rudradāman flatters himself to have "kept his promise to respect human life, except in combat" (purusha-vadha-nivritti-krita-satya-pratijñēna anya(tra) sangrāmēshu). The immortal glory of Kanishka, still spread over all oriental Asia, attests at what price the Church knew how to pay for the adherence of these barbarians.

Sanskrit has remained for the Hindu of the present day a sacred language, of magic power, powerful by its syllables, its sounds and its particles; it is a superhuman language which commands the forces of nature. Buddhism itself has in time placed itself at the service of this superstition. The priests who still study the rudiments of Sanskrit in Tibet, China, and Japan, believe the combinations of the alphabet to possess mysterious forces. An object decorated with the Sanskrit character is sacred; to use it outside of religious observance is to commit sacrilege. The Sakas must have found the same prejudice in force when they penetrated into India; but, exploited by the Brahmans for their own profit, the prejudice must have had for adversaries the other rival confessions of Brahmanism, such as Buddhism and Jainism, which keep their canonical and traditional scriptures in Prākrit editions. Two or three centuries earlier, [119] Aśōka doubtless had not so much as thought of borrowing Sanskrit from the Brahmanic schools to use in his inscriptions; but India, unchangeable only in appearance, had changed since then; continued relations with the Hellenic world had introduced new ideas; the invasion of the Sakas and the Turushkas had established barbarian dynasties in the very heart of the country, at Mathura, at Ujjayini. Buddhists and Jains. aspired to appropriate the language of which the Brahmans. had kept the official monopoly. Protected by the benevolent neutrality of the Kshatrapas of the North (Sudāsa. &c.) and the Kushaṇas, but held either by the remains of superstitious scruple or by imitations of the consecrated forms of their canonical dialects, they combined Sanskrit and Prākrit in their private inscriptions.

More audacious and happier than their neighbours of the North, the Kshatrapas of Surāshtra and Mālava took up the direction of the movement which displayed itself in favour of literary Sanskrit. Local circumstances favoured it; carried by invasion to the confines of the Dekhan, the dynasty of the Sakas was soon isolated from its parent tribes which occupied the North-west of India; the Kharoshtri writing, an expressive indication of a political orientation towards central Asia, disappears from the Kshatrapa coins immediately after the second of their princes Chashtana; the only trace of foreign influence which remains is the presence of the Greek or [120] quasi-Greek characters, the interpretation of which remains more or less an enigma. The Indian legend, which is the counterpart of it, is traced in Brahmanic writing, the real Hindu script. Its language is, as I have said, Prākrit; and the purposed, deliberate, and obstinate retention of this numismatic dialect, parallel with epigraphic Sanskrit, seems to me to define clearly the problem of the two languages. If the Kshatrapas who engraved Sanskrit on the rocks and columns, have excluded it from their coins, without being led away by the example set by one of themselves, Satyadaman, it is because the two categories of documents had a very distinct destination: the royal inscription, on rock and column, borrowed from its origin a sort of sacred character; the almost divine majesty of the kings reflected its glory directly upon them; it was still a sort of hymn to the grandeur of a god (dēva, the official designation of the king in learned literature). The money had a vulgar function; mixed with the most trivial and ordinary practices of daily life, it passed from hand to hand, without respect of birth or caste, exposed to the most impure contact; the Greek, the Prākrit, accommodated themselves to it without difficulty; the Sanskrit would have given offence, and the political sagacity of the Kshatrapas, proved by their long standing, understood how to spare the strong scruples of the conquered Hindus. The Sanskrit, just descended from the heights of heaven, was averse to treading altogether on the earth. The distribution of dramatic parlance, as [121] fixed by the theorists of the theatre and as practised with docility by its writers, seems to correspond with this phase of unsettled equilibrium between the invading Sanskrit and the Prakrits in a state of possession. The convention which has introduced and maintained upon the scene the usage of four languages concurrently with one another, is a fact not so simple as to explain itself; it would be difficult to find outside of India another theatre where the language regularly and necessarily changes in its vocabulary and grammatical forms, with each category of personages. The hypothesis which would attempt to justify this singularity as an exact reproduction and voluntary imitation of the social condition, would be in contradiction to the essential genius of Hindu art in all its manifestations; Hindu art keeps away, on principle, from the real, which contaminates and spoils the creations of fancy and the pleasures of imagination. Besides, it is sufficient to observe, in order to do away with this supposition, that in all other kinds of literature, unity of language is an absolute rule; in the tales, as in the learned epics, kings and valets, Brahmans and Parias, speak the same language. But, in the theatre, Sanskrit is reserved for the gods, kings, monks, great people; others share divers languages according to a minute technique. From this it appears, -- and it is the conclusion to which we have been led by the study of the words with which we commenced - that the Sanskrit theatre must have been constituted at [122] that epoch when Sanskrit, secularised, was not yet vulgarised, under the auspices of these Kshatrapas who realised for a moment in the history of India the particularities of language and protocol which dramatic conventions afterwards perpetuated. Situated behind the port of Bharukachchha (Broach, on the Narmadā, the classical Βαρυγαζα), which Hellenic commerce had adopted as an entrepôt since the discovery of the periodical monsoons, Ujjayini commanded the three highways required for importation and exportation: in the North, the Mathura (Metopa) road, where there reigned over the Sūrasēnas (Σουρασηνοι) a dynasty related to the Kshatrapas (Sodasa, &c.); in the

North-East, the road to Pātaliputra (Παλιβοθρα), the old capital of Magadha and the central market of the Ganges; in the South, the Dekhan (Δαχιναβαδης) route, and that of Pratishthana (Haufava), the capital of the Satakarni princes of Maharashira. The three great literary Prākrits, Saurasēnī, Māgadhī, Mahārāshtrī, radiate like a fan round Ujjayinī, the capital of Mālava, where Sanskrit had for a long time tended to emerge. The style of the edicts of Piyadasi engraved on the rocks of Girnar, side by side with the first inscription in Sanskrit, of Rudradāman, distinguishes itself among all other parallel writings by its tendency to Sanskrit. In a now old work on the Indian theatre I have called attention to the Sakāra, the illegitimate step-brother of the king, and to the Sakārī parlance, which has fallen to him as to all the Sakas, [123] his congeners. Among a people so indifferent to the memory of their past as the Hindus are, the Sakāra and Sākārī can only be explained as a sacred legacy inspired by tradition. The Sakāra and the Sākārī come into existence either with a prince hostile to the Sakas, or immediately after the fall of the Sakas, while the memory of the personage and his language still lived among his contemporaries. The Mrichchhakatikā, if it did not borrow from several of its forerunners, now lost, must date back still further than the rest of the Hindu theatre. Must we return to the theory of Wilson, who thought that the political events described in the piece were not pure fiction, and that Palaka, by his inclination towards Buddhist doctrines and his disdain for Brahmanic privileges, had actually raised the rebellion related by the drama and which ends in a change of dynasty upon the throne of Ujjayini? (Theatre, ed. Rost, Vol. I. p. 158). The tradition contained in the prologue to the drama, attributing the authorship of the drama to king Südraka, may have its origin in actual. facts, but tangled and confused. A group of legends studied by Bhau Daji, Mandlik, and Jacobi, represent king Sūdraka as the adversary of Sātavāhana and of his dynasty; to avenge an insult received, he allies himself with the son of the king of Ujjayini whom Sātavāhana had dethroned; he conquers the son of Sātavāhana, takes Pratishthāna and Kollāpura, but spares the inhabitants. We seem to hear an echo of these combats between the [124] Kshatrapas and the Satakarnis: the rum of Nahapana and of his race, exterminated by Gotamiputa, then the revenge of Rudradaman who triumphed twice over Pulumayi, son of Gotamiputa, reconquered the lost territories, and won glory by sparing the vanquished. The more we study the tradition in the light of historical documents, the more we feel the bonds tighten, which unite legend and history. Great names and great facts, imprinted on the imagination of the people and preserved also in documents, in inscriptions and on coins, which did not cease suddenly, between one day and the next, to be legible and intelligible, have been altered and transformed in the course of time without entirely disappearing.

If the Sanskrit theatre came into existence at the court of the Kshatrapas, the theory of Greek influence seems to gain probability. The country of the Kshatrapas was doubtless the most Hellenised of India, because of its being the most important market for Hellenic commerce. But there is nothing to lead us to believe that Greek influence could have extended to literature: the Greek characters engraven on the coins of the Kshatrapas still resist all attempts at interpretation and seem to prove that the Hellenisation remained very superficial.

The sum of the facts I have gathered here, leads me to admit that the Kshatrapa Sakas played a decisive role in the final constitution of Sanskrit literature; these rough Scythian invaders, carriers of civilisation through the world, [125] precipitated by their sudden intrusion the slow development of India. Varnished, through the chances of their adventurous existence, by Iranism, Hellenism, Brahmanism and Buddhism, they burst the bonds of the Brahmanic organisation, still too rigid, in introducing themselves within them; these barbarian conquerors, condemned by orthodoxy, prepared the unity of India. In wresting from the schools and liturgy of the Brahmans their mysterious language, they raised up against the confused variety of local Prākrits an adversary which alone was capable of triumphing over it. India, in guarding faithfully the era of the Sakas as its own era, has been, without knowing it, grateful and just. Their accession opens a new and lasting epoch. The conquered Sanskrit gives to India a common literature, in default of a national literature.

#### DEPOSIT OF SUTRAS IN STUPAS.

BY VINCENT A. SMITH, M.A., I.C S. (RETD.).

When Dr. Hoey and I described the find of inscribed bricks, as yet unique, at Gōpālpur in the Gōrakhpur District (Proc. A. S. B. 1896, p. 100) we failed to understand the nature of the ruined building in which they were enshrined. The bricks were inscribed with the sūtra of the 'Twelve Nidānas,' or the 'Chain of Causation,' and had been deposited on a brick stand or platform in "a small chamber, about eight feet square and about eight feet below the surface, which was built of huge bricks, about a foot and a half long, and some three inches thick . . . . On a ledge in the chamber Dr. Hoey himself found a small earthenware saueer containing eleven copper coins, which had evidently been undisturbed since they were deposited." Ten of the coins belonged to the Kushān kings, Kadphises II. (Hima), Kanishka, and Huvishka, while one was a specimen of the 'Cock and Bull' series of Ajodhya, with the name Ayu, or, as Mr. Rapson reads it, Ayya (for Ārya), Mitra.

Apparently, therefore, the deposit was made in the reign of Huvishka, the latest of the four kings represented. Possibly the number of coins, eleven, may be intended to signify the years of his reign. If so, the date, according to my chronology, which assumes the Kushān inscriptions to be dated in the Laukika era, would be A.D. 164. Even if my theory of the early use of the Laukika era should not be sustained, and it should be proved that the great Kushān kings employed a special 'era of Kanishka,' the date named would still, I am convinced, be approximately correct. The reasons for placing both Kanishka and Huvishka in the second century A.D. seem to me to be overwhelming.

A passage in I-tsing's work, Records of the Buddhist Religion (transl. Takakusu, p. 150), proves clearly that the chamber at Gōpālpur opened by Dr. Hoey was the relic-chamber of a stūpa. "The priests and the laymen in India," I-tsing observes, "make chaityas or images with earth, or impress the Buddha's image on silk or paper, and worship it with offerings wherever they go. Sometimes they build stūpas of the Buddha by making a pile and surrounding it with bricks. They sometimes form these stūpas in lonely fields, and leave them to fall in ruins. Anyone may thus employ himself in making the objects for worship. Again, when the people make images and chaityas which consist of gold, silver, copper, iron, earth, lacquer, bricks, and stone, or when they heap up the snowy sand (lit., sand-snow), they put in the images or chaityas two kinds of sarīras [relics]: (1) the relics of the Great Teacher; (2) the Gāthā of the Chain of Causation. The Gāthā is as follows:—

'All things (Dharmas) arise from a cause.

The Tathagata has explained the cause.

This cause of things has been finally destroyed;

Such is the teaching of the Great Sramana (the Buddha).'

If we put these two in the images or chaity as, the blessings derived from them are abundant."

In a note Mr. Takakusu cites Professors Oldenberg and Rhys Davids as remarking that this famous stanza, the so-called 'Buddhist creed,' doubtless alludes to the formula of the twelve Nidānas, which explains the origination and cessation of what are called here 'dhammahētu-ppa bhava.' Instances may be quoted of this stanza having been either enshrined in a stūpa, or incised upon the building, but as yet the full sūtra of the twelve Nidānas has not been found in any stūpa, except that at Gōpālpur.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Compare the late Mr. Carlleyle's discoveries in the great mound near Kasiā in the Gōrakhpur District, which was for a long time erroneously believed to be the site of Kuśinagara. He writes:—"This sitting figure of Buddha... was actually found inside and in the centre of the base of a small brick votive stūpa." In clearing away another similar, but ruinous, little stūpa, he found in the centre of its base a fragment of soulpture exhibiting a female figure, apparently broken off, from a group. "This placing of religious sculptures, or small statues," Mr. Carlleyle observes, "inside small brick votive stūpas was something new to me; and I thought this circumstance to be very curious and worthy of record." In a deep excavation in front of the temple of the Dying Buddha, he obtained a small plate of copper, about four and a half inches in length by an inchin width, inscribed with the usual Gāthā, Yē dharma, &c. The script was judged to be of the fifth century A. D. I have no doubt that this plate also had been used as the sanctifying deposit placed inside either an image or votive stūpa. (Cunningham, Reports, XVIII. 70.)

I may add that Dr. Hoernle has for long entertained the intention of publishing a complete edition of the Gōpālpur inscribed bricks, but has not yet found an opportunity of doing so. A small scale photograph of one side of one of them is given in Prof. Rhys Davids' latest book, Buddhist India (p. 123, fig. 27). The fact is also worth noting that bricks of huge dimensions were stall used as late as the second century A. D.; but it is possible that they were taken from an earlier building. Bricks of such size are commonly associated with buildings of greater antiquity.

# RAMABHADRA-DIKSHITA AND THE SOUTHERN POETS OF HIS TIME. BY T. S. KUPPUSWAMI SASTRI: TANJORE.

(Concluded from p. 142.)

Pupils of Råmabhadra-Dîkshita were also eminent scholars. They all acknowledge him as preceptor in very respectful terms in their works. They were (1) Srînivâsa-Dîkshita, the author of the Svarasiddhântachandrıkâ, a well-known work on Sanskrit grammar.

व्याकृतिनिर्माणचणान्यणमामि त्रीनमुनीञ्जगद्दन्द्यान् ।
गुरुमि समष्टिमेषां वन्दे श्रीरामभद्रयज्वानम् ॥
कष्टं व्याकरणं पतञ्जलिरिप प्राह स्म तल्लाप्यसी
दुर्ज्ञाना मितमद्भिरप्यतितरां कष्टा स्वरमित्रया ।
कैषा सा त्वमलीमसा मम मितमन्दा तथाप्युत्सहे
यन्मह्यं दयतेतरां निरुपिध श्रीरामभद्रो गुरुः ॥
संकृत्यन्वयसंभवाद्गुणमहाम्भोधेरनन्ताम्बया
जाह्नव्येव पविलया क्षितितले संवर्धितश्रेयसः ।
जातः कृष्णविपश्चितो विधुरिव प्रीणन्बुधानां मनः
सन्मार्गाभिगमोङ्कवलो विजयते स श्रीनिवासः सुधीः ॥

Svarasiddhantachandrika.

(2) Venkațêsvara-Kavi, the commentator on Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's Patanjalicharita and the well-known author of the *Unadinighanțu* compiled under the patronage of Sâhaji I. of Tanjore.

वन्दे धाम विचित्रं तत्प्रत्यूहध्वान्तद्यान्तये ।
यत्तरिद्रिरदाकारं लाल्यं वामार्धजानिना ॥ १ ॥
द्यातकोटिककोटीरकुटीरमणिकोटिभिः ।
आटीकिताङ्किनिकटं त्रिकोटीश्वरमाश्रये ॥ २ ॥
अस्ति तद्धापुरं नाम हस्तिवाजिकुलाकुलम् ।
अद्योषचोलधरणीविद्योषकमनोहरम् ॥ ३ ॥
\* \* \* \* \* \* \* ॥ ४ ॥
तत्नास्ति द्याहनृपतिः सुत्नामसमवैभवः ।
प्रतापतपनस्फूर्तिप्रकाद्यातदिगन्तरः ॥ ५ ॥
\* \* \* \* \* \* \* \*

एकराजतपःसंपत्पाकभूतिनजोद्भवः ।
उदारचिरतश्चाच्यः स्वदारिनरतः सुधीः ॥ ११ ॥
तेन साहित्यसर्वस्वनिधिना कविवन्धुना ।
भोसलाम्बुधिचन्द्रेण दीपाम्बाभाग्यराशिना ॥ १२ ॥
नियुक्तः करुणापूर्व नितरां प्रीतिझालिना ।
पुत्रः श्रीदक्षिणामूर्तेर्गङ्गापाधितवर्षमणः ॥ १३ ॥
समभद्रमिखश्रेष्ठदयासर्वस्वभाजनम् ।
वेदश्रीतिनिधिः शब्दशास्त्रमार्गाध्वनीनधीः ॥ १४ ॥
कौण्डिन्यकुलमूर्धन्यः सुमतिर्वेङ्कदेश्वरः ।
निघण्टुं पण्डितप्रीत्यै निबध्नाम्येष नृतनम् ॥ १५ ॥
उणादिपञ्चपाद्यां ये शब्दाः पूर्वेरदाहृताः ।
व्युत्पादितक्रमेणैव सविमर्शं वदामि तान् ॥ १६ ॥
अत्यन्तदुष्करेष्यस्मिन्भवाम्यहमकातरः ।
श्रीरामभद्रमिखनां देशिकानामनुग्रहात् ॥

At the end -

प्राचीनैः पञ्चपाद्यां ये शब्दा व्युत्पाद्य दर्शिताः । तानेकार्थाननेकार्थान्नानालिङ्कानुलिङ्ककान् ॥ सतां क्रमाद्ज्ञापियतुं कवीनां वेङ्कटेश्वरः । निघण्दुं कृतवान्विद्दस्कविसञ्जीवनामृतम् ॥ श्रीवेङ्कटेश्वरकृतौ शाब्दिकविद्दस्कविप्रमोदकरे । अभवदुणादिनिघण्टौ संपूर्णः पञ्चमः परिच्छेदः ॥

Und linighantu.

यं भाष्यं महद्यजीगपदृषिः श्रीचोक्कनाथाध्वरी
यो रामस्य च नीलकण्डमखिना बाणस्तवं कारितः ।
व्याचष्टे किल रामभद्रमखिनस्तस्याप्तदिाष्यः कृतिं
भोगीनद्रस्य हि वेङ्कटेश्वरकविर्यस्यां निबद्धं यद्याः ।।
टीकेयं ललिता नामगिरिजाता कृता मया ।
रमयदिपि सर्वज्ञं विषमेक्षणमण्यहो ।।

Commentary on the Patanjalicharita.

(3) Bhuminatha-Kavi, who wrote the Dharmavijayachampu, a romance from which extracts have already been made above on p. 132 ff.

विबुधकुलसमृद्धिः सुस्थिरा येन क्रुसा पणमदभयदाने यस्य दीक्षा प्रतीता । जनकनृपतिकन्याधन्यपार्थाः स देवः दाहजिनरपतीन्दोः श्रेयसे भूयसेऽस्तु ।।

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विश्वस्यातैकराजामितसुकृतपरीपाकभूतोद्भतश्रीः
कौसल्यायामिवाभुद्रयुक्तलिलको योष्त्र दीपाम्बिकायाम् ।
सः श्रीमद्रीसलाख्यामलकुलजलधिरिन्दुरिन्धानतेज-
स्सान्द्रः शाहावनीन्द्रो जगति विजयतां मूर्तिमान्राजधर्मः ॥
रामचन्द्रचरणारविन्दयोराश्रयप्रबलतश्चिकीर्षति ।
भमिनाथकविचक्रवर्त्यसौ शाहधर्मविजयोक्तिसाहसम् ॥
अस्माभिः पञ्चिविदो वयसि मदवदो पण्डितंमन्यमुख्यै-
स्तत्तादृक्षातिचित्रक्रमकवनपथव्याप्तैस्तापितासि ।
नलुण्यस्रोकदाहाधिपचरितसुधापूरगाढावगाहै-
र्निःशेषं याहि शानित भुवनजनि वाग्देवि मे संप्रसीद ॥
इच्छामात्राच्यमिदमुपानम्रतां याति येषां
हचोह्रेखः सरलरचना कोमलं संविधानम् ।
आचन्द्रार्के सरसकवयः क्षेममेते भजन्तां
पृथ्वीचक्रं कुकविनिहतं शद्यदुज्जीवयन्तः ॥
साहित्यरत्नकोशाय शब्दब्रह्मस्वरूपिणे।
रामभद्राय मखिने रामभक्त्वब्धये नमः ॥
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Dharmavijayachampûkâvya. Vaidyanatha, the author of the Paribhasharthasamgraha and nephew of Rûmabhadra-Dîkshita,

> मुर्तिर्यस्य हि पाणिनिः पदमहाभाष्यप्रबन्धा तथा वाक्यानां कृदपि स्वयं वितनुते वाग्यस्य दास्यं सदा । द्याच्या यस्य विरोधिवादिमकुटीकुद्याकवाग्धाटिका-स्तस्मै मातुलरामभद्रमिखने भूयो नमी मे भवेत् ॥ प्रणम्य परमं देवं भवानीपतिम्ब्ययं । क्रियते वैद्यनाथेन परिभाषार्थसंग्रहः ॥

> > Paribháshárthasa**in**gi aha.

(5) Raghunatha, at whose request our poet wrote his Sringaratilakabhana.

प्रार्थितो निजदािष्येण रघुनाथेन धीमता । गुङ्गारतिलकं नाम भाणं विरचयाम्यहम् ॥

Sringaratilakabhana.

The following names of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's contemporaries are given in his Shaddarśanisiddhûntasamgraha: (1) Râmanâthamakhin, (2) Naraharyadhvarin, (3) Periyappâ-Kavi alias Vinatêya, (4) Srîvenkatêśa, (5) Yajñêśvarâdhvarin, and (6) Srînivâsamakhin.

रामभद्राध्वरिवरो रामनाथमखीश्वरः। नरहर्यध्वरिमणिः पेरियणबुधाग्रणीः ॥ श्रीवेङ्काटेशिवबुधः श्रीमान्यज्ञेश्वराध्वरी । मखी च श्रीनिवासार्यो महतामि संमतः ।। शासनाक्षरमाकण्ये शाहराजस्य धीमतः । सप्तेते शास्त्रसिद्धान्तान्संगृह्णन्ति यथामित ॥

Shaddarśanisiddhantasangraha.

All of them flourished in the reign of Sâhaji I., A. D. 1684-1711. Further, the learned mento whom the grant of the village of Tiruviśainallûr was made by Râja Sâhaji I. were his contemporaries. Including Râmabhadra-Dîkshita himself they were 46 in number, the most prominent of them being (1) Bhâskara-Dîkshita, the author of the Ratnatûlikû, a commentary on Kishnânanda Sarasvatî's Siddhânta-Siddhânjana, a general treatise on Vêdânta.

यद्दीक्षाविषयं विनेयविषयाः प्रीत्या भजनते स्वयं लक्ष्मीकीर्तिसरस्वतीधृतिदयाह्रीज्ञान्तिदान्त्यादयः । कृष्णानन्दसरस्वती ज्ञामरसिश्चने मदीये ज्ञुभे नित्यं संनिहितोस्त्वसी मम गुरुर्ध्वान्तापनुस्ये विभुः ॥ यदुपदेज्ञावज्ञान्मम ज्ञोमुषी गहनमर्थमपि स्फुटयत्यसी । विजयराघवज्ञास्त्रिणमाश्रये गुरुमहं तमज्ञोषगुणाकरम् ॥ प्रामे पञ्चकंचिरिनाम्नि महिते विद्यज्ञनालंकृते यज्वा याजयिता च वेङ्कटपतिर्नाम्ना ज्ञिवे भक्तिमान् । अस्ति श्रीहरितान्वये समुदितः श्रुत्यर्थनिणायकः सूत्रेषु त्रिषु कल्पसंज्ञिषु पटुः विज्ञान्नणीः ॥ तत्सूनुर्विवृणोत्येष सिद्धान्त्रनकृति गुरोः । सर्वतोमुखयागस्य कर्ता भास्करदीक्षितः ॥

इति श्रीहरितगोत्रितिलककुरवद्दोरिकुलप्रदीपश्रीतस्मार्तस्वतन्त्रश्रीवेङ्कटप्रतियज्वनस्तनू-जस्य नाचम्माम्बागर्भसंभूतस्य श्रीविजयराघवद्यास्त्रिगुरुवरकटाक्षलब्धान्वीक्षि-क्यादिकितपयविद्यस्य श्रीकृष्णानन्दसरस्वतीगुरुचरणारविन्दपरिचरणलब्धसकल-विद्यावद्यास्य सर्वतोमुखयाजिनो भास्करदीक्षितस्य कृतौ सिद्धान्तिसिद्धाञ्जनव्या-ख्यायां रत्नतूलिकाख्यायां \* \* \* ||

Ratnatúliká.

(2) Venkaţakrishna-Dîkshita, who wrote the Natesavijayakâvya at the request of Gôpâla Bhûpâla, a governor of Sivâji's possessions in the South, near Chidambaram. Gôpâla was the son of Dâdâji, son of Bâlâji. He patronised letters, founded agrahâras, gave annual allowances in the shape of corn or money to learned paṇāvis, and made several other charitable endowments.

बालाजिनामाजानि पाण्डितेन्द्रः ॥ १ । ७ ॥ अजायतास्मादरणेरिवाग्निर्दादाजिनामा तनयोग्नेतेजाः ॥ १ । ८ ॥ उमाम्बिका नाम हुताज्ञानस्य स्वाहेव तस्याजिन धर्मपत्नी । अजीजनद्रर्ममिवात्तदेहं गोपालनामानमसौ कुमारम् ॥ १ । ९ ॥

गोपालभूपालवरस्य तस्य गुणौघमाणिक्यखनिः कनीयान् । रामस्य सौमित्रिरिवातिमात्रप्रेमाश्रयो विद्वलपण्डितोऽभूत् ॥ १ । ११ ॥ धर्मप्रतिष्ठापनतत्परस्य तथाविधी अक्रुरहितस्य तस्य । सखानधः शङ्करपण्डितोऽभूद्राण्डीवधन्वेव गदाग्रजस्य ॥ १ । १२ ॥ राज्ञः शिवच्छत्नपतेः प्रसादात्प्राज्ञस्तदीयामवलम्बय मुद्राम् । चिदम्बरपान्तभुवं चिराय गोपायति ब्रह्मकुलानुकूलः ॥ १ । १९ ॥ विद्वज्जनो यस्य विभोः सकाशादासाद्य चर्षाशनमात्तहर्षः । आविष्करोत्यात्मनि चातकत्वं दातुर्घनत्वं च दिगन्तरेषु ॥ १ । ३२ ॥ विद्यन्मणिश्रेणिविराजमानैर्महीं परिष्कृत्य महाग्रहाँरैः । नन् स्वयं नायकरत्नभूतो विद्यातते लासविवर्जितोऽसी ॥ १ । ३७ ॥ चिदम्बरे द्राक्शिवगद्भयाद्भियया जनानां ह्रियते व्रह्नः । हन्तास्य तस्या अपि पङ्काहर्तुर्वयं कथं पावनतां वदामः ॥ १ । ३९ ॥ कान्तेन साकं कलधीतशैले विहारवार्ता हृदि विश्वमातुः। व्यावर्तितानेन विहारहेतोरान्दोलिकामर्पयताभिरूपाम् ॥ १ । ४० ॥ सभेशसेवासमयानुशंसिन्यनेन दत्ते निनदत्यमन्दम् । घण्टामणी मूर्धिन कृताञ्जलिः स्वे लोके वसिष्ठं हि विलोकतेऽजः ।। १ । ४९ ।। विद्युद्धवाधूलकुलाब्धिचन्द्रो विद्यन्मणिर्वेङ्कटकुष्णयज्वा । गोपालनेतुः कवने विनेता पाचेतसस्येव पितामहोऽभूत् ॥ १ । ४९ ॥

Natéśavijayakávya.

Venkatakrishna-Dîkshita next wrote, in the following order, the Srîrûmachandrôdayakûvya, the Uttarachampû and the Kuśalavavijayanûtaka.

अस्ति श्रीचोलधरणीजानिरद्भुतिबक्तमः ।
आज्ञाचीटी विभोर्यस्य राज्ञामुत्तंसंकेतकी ॥ ३ ॥
यः श्रीभोसलवंशमौक्तिकमणियं शाहराजं विदुयेनैकप्रभुनन्देनन विदिता दीपाम्बिका वीरसूः ।
यस्मै श्रीः स्पृहयत्यरातिरयते यस्माद्भयं यस्य ती
सोदयौँ शरभोजितुक्कजिनृपौ यस्मिश्च धर्मः स्थिरः ॥ ४ ॥
सर्वज्ञचूडामणिना विपश्चित्सन्दोहभाग्योपनतेन तेन ।
सञ्चीदितो वेङ्कटकृष्णयञ्चा संदर्भयत्यौत्तरकाण्डमर्थम् ॥ ६ ॥

श्रीभोजलक्ष्मणसुधीन्द्रकृते प्रबन्धे लग्नं सदल्पमपि में लपितं स्वदेत । कल्याणरूप्यकलज्ञाद्वयसंभृतेन क्षीरेण वारि सहितं महितं किल स्यात् ॥ ६ ॥ At the end — वाधूलान्वयवाधिशीतिकरणादिदद्रणाग्नेसरा-ज्ञान्यायामिह वेङ्काटादिविदुषो मङ्गाम्बिकायां गुणैः । संजातेन विदर्भलक्ष्मणकृते चम्पूपबन्धे कृतः काण्डो वेङ्काटकृष्णयज्वविदुषा जीयाचिरं सप्तमः ॥

Uttarachampu.

आदिष्टोऽस्म्यकोशकलाभिनवभोजराजेन भोसलकुलजलिषपूर्णचन्द्रेण सार्वभौमेन द्याहिजमहाराजेन । \* \* \* । अस्ति खलुसमस्तजगत्मश्चस्ताभिजनदालिस्य वाधूलकुलजलिकोस्तुभस्य विद्वज्जनश्चापनीयस्य वेङ्कराद्रिमहोपाध्यायस्य तृतीयऋणा-पकरणकारणीभूतदेहपरित्रहो मङ्गलिम्बकागर्भद्यक्तिमुक्तामणिर्वेङ्करकृष्णयज्वेति विख्यातः कविः । \* \* \* \* ।

> स किल पलकंचिरिग्रामवास्तव्यविद्व-ज्ञनमकुटवतंसाद्वासुदेवाध्वरीन्द्रात् । अधिगतपदवाक्यन्यायतन्त्रस्त्रिलोकी-गुरुपरमिश्चिनद्राध्यापितब्रह्मविद्यः ॥ ४ ॥ श्रीरङ्गपदणपतित्रिशिरःपुरेश-चे ज्ञीपुराधिपतितज्जपुराधिनाथैः । उचैर्यथोत्तरमुदन्ज्वितगीरवश्री-रास्ते सुखं सहजिराजपुरेऽधुनासौ ॥ ५ ॥

\* \* \* \* \*

बाल्येऽसी निजतातपादनिकटादभ्यस्तसाङ्गश्रुतिः सम्यक्छीलितकाव्यनाटकरसालंकारभावक्रमः । चक्रे काव्ययुगं चटेशविजयश्रीरामचन्द्रोदया-भिष्ट्यं सोचरचम्पु पदसंदर्भेऽस्य यत्नः कियान् ॥ ६ ॥

In the Prastâvana of the Kuśalavavijayana!aka.

(3) Vêdakavi, who wrote the Jîvânandananâṭaka, Vidyâparinayanâṭaka and its commentary and who attributed his works to his patron Ânandarâyamakhin. Mention is made of Ânandarâyamakhin, minister of Sâhajî I., in the Paribhâshâvṛittivyâkhyâna by Râmabhadra-Dîkshita.

सरसर्कावतारसज्ञः षड्वर्रान्यर्थतत्त्वविदुदारः ।
भाति ज्यम्बकयज्वा भाग्यपरीणाम एव सूरीणाम् ॥ १९॥
एको यस्य विद्युद्धयेष्टमुदयः काकीजिविद्दल्मभी—
रंत्ररप्यधिकादमर्त्यतिटनीस्नानं तदभ्युस्यः ।
बोधे सत्यपि तावदौपनिषदे व्यक्तयै जगत्यां विधिप्रामाण्यस्य सहस्रदक्षिणमखानुष्ठानमप्यादृतम् ॥ १२॥

जातं जयन्तिमव द्यार्द्गभृता समस्य यस्याग्रजान्मघवतो नरसिंहरायात् । वृद्धश्रवःप्रियगुणं विवुधैष्पेय-नानन्दरायमखिनं कथयन्ति सन्तः ॥ १६ ॥ दाह्जिक्षितीन्द्रसचिवे तस्मिन्पोषयति राभभद्रमखी । लम्भितमनःप्रसादो रचित्नमधुनाहमुत्सहे ग्रन्थान् ॥ १४ ॥

Paribháshávrittivyákhyána by Râmabhadra-Dîkshita.

Anandarâyamakhin continued as minister and general during the reigns of Sarabhôjî I. and Tukkojî. He defeated in A. D. 1725 the combined forces of the Nâyaka of Madura and the Tondamân of Pudukkôtṭai, both of whom espoused the cause of Tanḍatêvan, a claimant for the Marava Chiefship of Râmnâd in opposition to Bhavânisamkara. This fact is borne out by the subjoined extract from the Tanjore District Manual, p. 771 f., paragraph 14:— In 1725, on the death of Vijayaraghunâtha, the adopted son of the infamous 'Kilavan' (old man) who persecuted and brutally murdered the Portuguese Jesuit Missionary, John D. Britto (1693), the right of succession to the Maravan Chiefship became the subject of violent contest. attended with bloodshed, between two rival claimants, Tandatevan, a descendant in a collateral branch of a former Chief, and Bhavanicankara, an illegitimate son of Kilavan. The latter's cause was espoused by the Rajah of Tanjore, while the Nâyak at Madura and the Tondaman of Pudukkottai (Poodoocottah) supported the former. The troops of Madura and Pudukkottai, however, were put to flight by the Tanjore general, Ânanda Râo Peshva, who having seized and slain Tanda, put Bhavanicankara in possession of the country."

Ânandarâyamakhin died probably in the latter part of Tukkôjî's reign and was succeeded by Ghanasyâmapandita, generally known as Channdâjipant. The Jîrânandananâṭaka was composed during the reign of Sâhajî I. (1684-1711).

सूत्रधारः—नन्वस्ति मम वदो सहृदयजनचन्दनं जीवानन्दनं नाम नवीनं नाटकम् ।. पारिपार्श्विकः—कस्तस्य प्रबन्धस्य कविः ।

मूलधारः — विद्दन्कविकल्पतरुरानन्दरायमखी । य एष इह

गुरुदेवदिजभक्तो नैमिक्तिनित्यकाम्यकर्मपरः । दीनजनाधीनदयो विहरित समरे च विक्रमार्क इव ॥ यः स्नातोऽज्ञिन दिव्यसिन्धुसिल्ले यः स्वात्मविद्याश्रितो येनाकारि सहस्रदक्षिणमखो यः सिद्धराश्रीयते । सोऽयं च्यम्बकराययञ्चतिलको विद्यत्कवीनां प्रभा-र्थक्तातस्य नृसिंहरायमिखनस्तुल्यप्रभावोऽनुजः ॥

मूक्रधारः—(विहस्य) मारिष, त्वं न जानासि यत एवं ब्रवीषि । द्याणु तावत् । आ बाल्यादिष पोषितोऽजनि मया प्रेम्णा तथा लालित-स्तेनासी सरसामुपैतु कवितामानन्दरायाध्वरी । इत्येकक्षितिपालवंदाजलघेर्दैव्या गिरां जातया श्रीद्याहावनिनायकाकृतिभृता नूनं प्रसादः कृतः ॥

Jivanandanandtaka by Anandarayamakhin.

The Vidyaparinayanalaka and its commentary by the same author were written during the reign of Sarabhôn I. (1711-1729), the younger brother and successor of Sahaji I.

मूलधारः — नन्वस्ति मम वशे सकलशमधनहृदयानन्दसमुद्धाटकं विद्यापरिणयनं नाम नवीनं नाटकम्।

पारिपार्श्विकः —कस्तस्य प्रवन्धस्य कविः । सूत्रधारः —विद्दन्कविकल्पतरुरानन्दरायमखीः ।

> नानापूर्वमहाक्रतुप्रणयनैरध्यात्मसंमर्ज्ञनैः कर्मब्रह्मपथप्रचारसविता षड्कानीवस्रभः । तातो यस्य किलैकराजवसुधाधीरंधरीगीष्पतिः स्रोणीपालकिरीटलालितपदः ख्यातो नृसिंहाध्वरी ॥

आपि च

यस्य तातानुजन्मापि यज्ञःपावितदिङ्गुखः । त्निवर्गफलसंपन्नरूयम्बकामात्यदीक्षितः ॥ ॥

पारिपार्श्विकः — \* \* \* \* \* \* \*

एतत्त्रणीतमभिनविमदं नाटकमस्माभिरभिनीयत इति वाङ्कनसातिवर्ति ननु भाग्यामदमस्माकम् । परंतु श्रुतिस्मृतीतिहासागमतन्त्रादिसिद्धनानाविधसाम्बद्धावचरणपरिचरणतदनुसंधाननिरन्तरितनिखिलवासरस्य तदन्तरालपरिमितपरिशिष्टकतिपयमुहूर्तनिवर्तनीयचतुरुद्धिपरिमुद्धितसकलराज्यतन्त्रस्य श्रारममहाराजमन्त्रिशिखामणेरस्य जनकसनकसनन्दनप्रमुखाभिनन्दनतदीदृशमहाप्रबन्धनिबन्धनपटिमधौरंधरीयमिति मे महदाश्चर्यम् ॥

Vidydparinayandtaka by Ánaudaráyamakhin.

व्यक्तं व्यासपुरोगमैः कृतमपि ज्ञातं गुरुभ्योपि य-त्तस्वं नित्यमलैकिकश्चितिगरामास्ते परोक्षात्मना । तहृइयं सरसप्रवृत्तिजनकं कृत्वा नवं नाटकं व्याचष्टे सुखबोधनाय विदुषामानन्दरायाध्वरी ॥

Vidyaparinayanatakavyakhyana by Anandarayamakhin.

Certainly Vêdakavi must have lived during the reign of Sarabhôjî I. if he wrote the Vidya-parinayandiaka. Mahâmahôpâdhyâya Paṇḍit Durgâprasâd, in identifying Sâhajî with Sarabhôjî in his edition of the Jîvânandanandiaka, p. 108, has evidently made a mistake. Likewise Dr. Burnell's supposition in his Tanjore Catalogue, p. 172, that the Vidyâparinayandiaka was composed about A. D. 1750 is not free from error. Another work by, or rather attributed to, Ânandarâyamakhin is the Aśvaldyanagrihyasûtravritti.

आनन्दराययज्वेन्दुरक्षरत्स्वरसानुगाम् । आश्वलायनसूत्रस्य वृत्तिं वितनुते सुधीः ॥ १२॥

Aśvaldyanagrihyasútravritti by Anandarayamakhin.

That Ânandarâyamakhin was dead, when Pratâpasimha (Pratapasing) ascended the throne in 1741, is beyond all doubt, as the name of the former is mentioned among the benevolent men of the past in the subjoined verse of the *Mahishaśataka*, which was composed at that time by Vânchhêśvara.

नानाजिपभुचन्द्रभानुदाहजीन्द्रानन्दरायादयो विद्वांसः प्रभवो गताः श्रितसुधीसन्दोहजीवातवः । विद्यायां विषबुद्धयो हि वृषलाः सभ्यास्त्विदानींतनाः किं कुर्वेऽम्ब कृषे व्रजामि दारणं व्वामेव विश्वावनीम्।

Therefore, the Aśvaldyanagrihyasútraviitti by Ânandarâyamakhin could certainly not have been written so late as 1770 A. D. as Dr. Burnell supposes (see his Tanjore Catalogue, p. 13).

The following pedigree of Anandarayamakhin is based on the extracts quoted below it :—

Bâvâjî

(of the Bharadvaja gôtra).

Gangâdharâdh varin alias Kâkôjî paṇḍita (minister of Ēkôjî).

Narasimhådhvarin (minister of Ékôjî and Sâhajî; and author of the Tripuravijayachampû).

Ânandarâya (minister of Sâhajî I., Sarabhôjî I., and Tukkôjî, and author of the Jivanandananataka, &c.). Tryambakâdhvarin (author of (1) Stridharma, (2) Dharmakûța, &c.).

Gangâdharâdhvarin.

Nârâyaṇa (author of the Vikramasénachampúkúvya).

Bhagavantarâya
(step-brother of
Narasimhâdhvarin and
Tryambakâdhvarin
and author of the
Mukundavilásakávya,
Rághavábhyudayanátaka,
and Uttarachampá).

श्रीमद्रोसलवंदाभूपतिकुलामात्येषु विख्यातिमा-न्भारद्वाजकुलार्णवेन्दुरुदभूद्वावाजिरभ्याहितः । पुत्रस्तस्य किलेकभूपतिमणेर्मन्त्री संदैवादृत-स्तेनांसीद्वरुवत्प्रगल्भधिषणी गङ्काधराख्यो अध्वरी ॥ ३॥ तस्य द्वी तनयावुदारचरिती कृष्णाम्बिकागर्भजा-वेकक्ष्मापतिलालितौ गुरुपदे चारोप्य संमानितौ । तत्पुत्रेण च शाहजिक्षितिभृता ज्येष्टानुवृत्त्यादृतौ तत्तादृग्विविधाग्रहारकरणादिद्वत्प्रतिष्ठापकौ ॥ ४॥ ज्येष्टस्तल सदावदातचरितः श्रीमान्नृसिंहाध्वरी गायत्नीसमुपासनादिभिरपि श्रौतैश्व सत्कर्मभिः। आत्मानं परिपूर्य तं सुचरितैः पुलैः प्रतिष्ठाप्य च त्रेधा ब्रह्महिताय सत्कृतिचितान्स ब्रह्मलेकानगात् ॥ ५॥ तस्यात्मित्रवयेश्यजस्तु धृतिमानानन्दरायाध्वरी कौमारात्प्रभृति प्रगल्भधिषणः श्रीदााहराजादृतः । इष्टापूर्तसदन्नदानसुहितलैविद्यवृद्धैः सह श्रुत्युक्तार्थपरिष्क्रियापदुमातिः सत्कर्मनिष्णातधीः ॥ ६ ॥

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ज्येष्ठे तत्र नृसिंहयज्विन दिवं यातेऽनुजस्तत्सुता-न्परयन्पुत्रवदग्रजापचितिमप्यानन्दराये दधत् । वैतानानि च कारयन्सुचिरतान्येतैः स्वपुत्रेण च श्रीमानत्र महाग्निचिद्दिजयते श्रीत्र्यम्बकार्योऽध्वरी ॥ ७॥

Mudrarakshasanatakavyakhyana by Dhundhi.

विद्वत्कलपतरे।स्व्यम्बकिविभोः पौत्नेण गङ्गाधरा-मात्यस्यात्मभवेन बालकिवना नारायणेन स्वयम् । अभ्यासाय महाप्रबन्धकरणे सद्दाप्यसद्दा कृतं श्रीमद्दिक्रमसेनराजचिरतं नन्दन्तु सर्वे बुधाः ॥ श्रीनारायणरायेण समास्वष्टादशीव्यसौ । विश्वावसौ कृतश्चम्पूप्रबन्धस्तानमुदे सताम् ॥

Vikramasénachampû by Nârâyanarâya.

एकोजिक्षितिपालमुख्यसचिवश्रेष्ठस्य गङ्गाधरा-मात्यस्यात्मसमुद्भवेन भगवन्ताख्येन विख्यातये । प्रोक्तं रामचरित्नमार्थनरसिंहस्य प्रसादादिदं श्रीमच्यंम्बकवर्यवंशतिलकस्यास्तां चिरं श्रेयसे ॥

Uttarachampû by Bhagavantarâya.

गङ्गाधराध्वरिसुतो नरसिंहसूरे-र्यस्त्र्यम्बकाध्वरिमणेश्व सुधीः कनीयान् । काव्येऽसुना विरिचिते भगवन्तनाम्ना सर्गः शुभोऽजनि सुकुन्दविलासनाम्नि ॥

Mukundavilásakávya by Bhagavantarâya.

(4) Mahadêvakavi, the author of the Adbhutadarpanandtaka and Sukasandésa. (5) Periyap-pa-Kavi alias Vînatêya, who composed the drama Sringáramanjarísáhardjíya and who has already been mentioned (p. 178 above) in Râmabhadra-Dîkshita's Shaddarsanssiddhântasangraha. (6) Mahadêvavajapêyin, the author of the Subôdhini, a commentary on Bôdháyanasrautasútra.

अस्ति बौधायनं सूलमाद्यमाध्वर्यवाश्रयम् ।
अधीतिबोधाचरणप्रचारेस्तत्पपञ्चयन् ॥
भारद्वाजान्वयाम्भोधिसुधांद्युः सत्सु संमतः ।
लप्यम्बकाध्वरी लोके लप्यन्तज्ञः समेधते ॥
तद्ध्वर्युर्महादेववाजपेयी तदाज्ञया ।
बोधायनोक्तकर्मान्तद्वेधकल्पानुसारतः ॥
वै ' ' जानां भवस्वामिमतानुगाम् ।
कर्माध्वगानां सुगमां करोति श्रीतचन्द्रिकाम् ॥

Mahâdêvavâjapêyin was the father of Vâsudêva-Dîkshita, the author of the Bâlamanôramâ and Adhvaramímânsākutûhalavriti. His commentary on the Sidahântakaumuâî is called the Bâlamanôramâ in contrast with the Prauḍhamanôramâ of Bhaṭṭôjì-Dîkshita, the author of the text. According to the colophon, the Lâlamanôramâ was composed during the reign of (the Marâṭha king) Tukkôjî of Tanjore. Tukkôjî ascended the throne in A. D. 1729. Therefore this commentary must have been written between that date and 1736, the last year of his reign. Vâsudêva-Dîkshita was the pupil of his elder brother Viśvêśvara-Dîkshita. This Viśvêśvara-Dîkshita's grandson, Bâlâ-Dîkshita alıas Yajūêśvara-Dîkshita, wrote the Bôdhâyanamahâgn-chayanaprayôga, Srautaparibhâshâsamgrahavritti, Sâvitrachayanaprayôga, Âgrahâyaṇaprayôga, Darŝapūrṇamásaprayôga, and several other works on Bôdhâyanasâtra.

Introduction to the Balamanorama:-

अस्तु नमः पाणिनये भूयो मुनये तथास्तु वरहचये । किं चास्तु पतम्बलये भ्रात्ने विश्वेश्वराय गुरवे च ॥

Colophon of the Balamanorama :— इति श्रीमत्सन्ततसन्तन्यमानइयेनकूर्मषोडग्राररथचक्राकारादिबहुगुणविराजमानमौढापिरमितमहाध्वरस्य श्रीग्राहजिग्रारभोजितुक्कोजिभोसलचोलमहीमहेन्द्रामात्यधुरंधरस्य श्रीमदानन्दरायविद्दत्सार्वभौमस्य अध्वर्युणा पञ्चपुरुषीपौष्येण बाल्य एव तह्यानिर्वर्तितापिरिमितमहाग्निविजृम्भितवाजपेयसर्वप्रष्ठाप्तोर्यामपमुखमखसन्तर्पितग्रातमखप्रमुखबर्हिर्मुखेन पदवाक्यप्रमाणपारावारपारीणाग्रजन्मविश्वेश्वर्वाजपेययाजितो लब्धविद्यावेग्राचेन अध्वरमीमांसाकुतूहलनिर्माणप्रकटितसर्वतन्त्रस्वातन्त्र्येण बोधायनापस्तंबसत्याषाढभारद्वाजकात्यायनाश्वलायनद्वाद्यायणादिकल्पसूलतद्वाध्यपारीणमहादेववाजपेययाजिसुतेन अन्नपूर्णागर्भजातेन वासुदेवदीक्षितविदुषा विरचितायां सिद्धान्तकौमुदीव्याख्यायां बालमनोरमाख्यायां, &c.

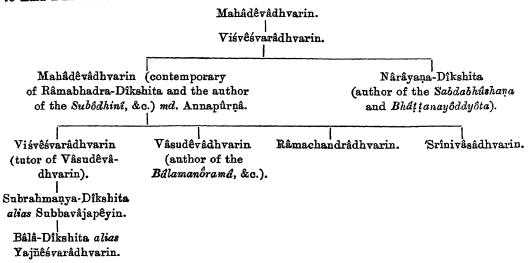
Introduction to the Bodhayanadarsapurnamasaprayoga:

साग्निभः सोमसंस्थाभिस्तांपंतेन्दुशिखामणिम् ।
सुब्रह्मण्याभिधं वन्दे पितरं श्रीतसागरम् ।।
श्रीवत्सान्वयवाधिकौस्तुममणिविश्वश्वराध्वयंभूत्तस्याभृत्प्रथमः सुतः किलमहादेवाध्वरीन्द्रस्ततः ।
श्रीनारायणदीक्षितो यदनुजस्तस्याभवन्सूनवश्वत्वारः पदवाक्यमाननिपुणा वेदादिमूर्ता इव ।।
ज्यायान्विश्वश्वराध्वयंथ विदितयशा वासुदेवाध्वरीन्द्रः
ख्यातः श्रीरामचन्द्राध्वरकृदथ ततः श्रीनिवासाध्वरीन्द्रः ।
तेषु ज्येष्ठस्य पुत्रो विरचितचयनानेकसंस्थाकसोमः
श्रीसुब्रह्मण्ययज्वा मम पिनृचरणः सूत्रषद्भपवक्ता ।।
श्रीवोधायनकल्पसूत्रसरणौ न्यायादिसिद्धान्तविद्रोपालाध्वरिकारिकाप्रकटितान्युक्तानि यानि स्फुटम् ।
अस्मत्तातकनिष्ठतातचरणैः श्रीवासुदेवाभिधैरप्येतानि च तत्र तत्र कलये सूत्रेषु यज्ञेश्वरः ।।

At the end of the above work-

राजश्रीदारभावनीन्द्र(Sarabhōji IL)वचसा नागेदायज्वाभिध-प्रीढप्रार्थनयापि संकलयतः कल्पोक्तिरोषं मम । दोषो यद्यपि नो भवेदथ पुनः स्याचेत्परामृद्य त-न्निःरोषं परिशोधयन्तु दयया सन्तो विदन्तोऽखिलम् ॥ इति श्रीदाहजिमहाराजपुरवास्तव्येन बालादीक्षिताविदुषा कृता बोधा-यनसयाजमानदर्शपूर्णमासविवृतिः संपूर्णा ॥

The subjoined pedigree shows the descent of Mahadêvavajapêyin and his relationship to Bala-Dakshita:—



(7) Sridharavenkatêsa, known as Ayya Aval throughout Southern India and celebrated for his piety and devotion, was the author of several religious lyrics. The following are his works: — (1) Akhyashashti, (2) Dayasataka, (3) Matribhûtasataka, (4) Stutipaddhati, (5) Sivabhaktikalpalatika, (6) Sivabhaktalakshana, (7) Taravalistotra, (8) Artiharastotra, (9) Kulirdshiaka, (10) Pôldnavaratnamáliká. &c., published in one volume in Grantha character in the Srîvidyâ Press, Kumbhakonam, (11) Sáhéndravilásakúvya in 8 cantos describing the exploits of his patron Sahaji of Tanjore. The following events referred to in it are of historical interest. Ekôjî, the founder of the Marâtha dynasty of Tanjore, came on an excursion to the south accompanied by a large body of cavalry and his eldest son Sahajî I., the hero of the poem. On his way he overthrew many chiefs that were hostile to him and left in power those that were well-disposed towards him. On reaching the banks of the Kâvêrî, his second son Surphôjî was born. The then ruler of the Chôla country in great apprehension sent an army against him; but it was completely defeated and Êkôjî easily took possession of the country. After some time, he got his son Sâhajî crowned as sovereign of Tanjore. In the reign of Sâhajî, the Nâyakas of Madura made frequent encroachments upon the territories of the Sêtupati of Râmnâd who had declared himself a feudatory of Tanjore. The army sent to help the latter defeated the Nâyakas of Madura and strengthened the position of the Sêtupati. Râjarâm, the illegitimate son of Sivâjî the Great and therefore a cousin of Sâhajî I., was at this time the regent of the Maratha dominions in the North on account of the minority of Shahu and seems to have been on very friendly terms with him. In 1690 Shahu was taken prisoner by the Muhammadans and Râjarâm escaped to Gingî in South Arcot, where he was besieged. Sâhajî despatched an army from Tanjore, which compelled the Muhammadan troops to raise the siege for a time. But the fort was eventually taken by Zulfikar Khan, who allowed Rajaram to escape. The details of Ekôji's accession to power in Tanjore have not been fully stated in this work.

मालोजिम्भर्तरभदशेषमान्यस्तन्जो भाव शाहभूपः। निधिर्गुणानां निजकीर्तिकान्ताविहारसीमायितवैजयन्तः ॥ मालीजिभूभर्तरनन्तरं स राज्यं समालम्बत शाहराजः ॥ निजामज्ञाहप्रमुखाः प्रतापप्रारभारधुर्या भवि सार्वभौमाः। अस्य प्रसादं प्रतिपद्य कुच्छादुच्छायिणीं संपदमन्वभूवन् ॥ शम्बाजिराजश्व शिवाजिराजी जीजाम्बिकायां तनयावभूताम् । तुकाम्बिकायां सुत एकभूपस्तस्य त्रिभिस्तैर्मुदितं मनोऽभूत् ॥ औदार्थगाम्भार्यमुखं गुणैवं तुलासमुझङ्किनमादधानः । शम्बाजिनामा जगति प्रतीतः स कालधर्मेण समन्वितोऽभूत ॥ विावाजिराजो<sup>52</sup> विभुर्यशस्त्री प्रागलभ्यमत्युन्नतमाललम्बे । चण्डैर्भुजादण्डमहःप्रकाण्डैर्विखण्डयन्यावनमण्डलानि ॥ सामर्षदुर्धर्षविरोधियोधप्रवेदानस्वावनतत्क्षयादिम् । यः साहसब्यहमदाक्यतर्कमचर्करीत्कर्कज्ञमर्कतेजाः ॥ भौढमतापान्क्षितिभूत्कलापान्दुरुद्ध्रं मज्जयतः स्वयं यः। दिल्लीश्वरोद्दामचमुपयोधेर्गाधेतरस्यास्त चिरादगस्त्यः ॥ प्रतापभूम्ना रिपुवर्गदुर्गाण्यरं हरन्नइवगणेइवरो यः । तुलातिगां छत्रपतित्वकीर्तिमुपार्जदूर्जस्वलमर्जुनौजाः ॥ एकोजिराजं समुपेत्य धीरोदात्तं ततस्तत्त्वविदग्रगण्यः । राज्याश्रयः कल्पयाति स्म नाथं प्राज्यप्रतापं स हि ज्ञाहभूपः ।। त्रातुं निलिम्पानिव संप्रविष्टत्रिविष्टंपे अथो पित्रि प्रगल्भः । राशास पृथ्वीं शमितप्रतीया गुणैर्मनीहारिभिरेकभूषः ॥ दीपाभिधाथ क्षितिबद्धभेन पाणौ गृहीता हरिणेव लक्ष्मीः । तस्य प्रभोः सा तनुते स्म पूर्वव्यूढाङनातो अध्यधिकं प्रमोदम ॥ अनवद्यगुणौघजन्मभूरथ दीपाम्बिकया शुभे दिने । तनयो जनितः कुलोद्दहो जगदानन्दधुकन्दलैः समम् ॥ अभिधामथ तस्य ग्राह इत्यकृत क्षोणिपतिः कविच्छटे । सुरभीकुरु मयोनिजां नवकस्तूरिकयेव भारतीम् ॥ गुणमण्डलमण्डितं सुतं स तमासाद्य वसुंधरेश्वरः । प्रमदं महितं प्रपेदिवानजनि स्कन्दिमवेन्दुदोखरः ॥ स कदापि दिद्याः प्रतापवान्विजिगीषुः क्षितिपाकदाासनः । निरगादथ बङ्गलूरुतस्तुरगानीकितभूमिमण्डलः ॥

विपिनं कतिचिद्दिवं परानापि नीत्वा परिपाल्य चापरान्। परिरन्धभुजो जयाश्रया नृपतिः प्रैक्षत सह्यजातटीम् ॥ उदभूदथ तत्र नन्दनः शरभोजिर्धरणीविडीजसः । निपुणः परिपन्थिनिग्रहे समरोत्साह इवाकृतिं वहन् ॥ अथ चोलपतिर्निदाम्य तं निकटोपागतमेकभूपतिम्। समराय भयादिमेदुरां पृतनां प्रेषयति स्म सस्मयः ॥ वनवन्हिमिताम्बुजच्छटे विनिकर्तुं रिपुवर्गमुद्भटे । कुपितस्य तदैकभूपतेरचलक्रूलतया समं चमूः ॥ रथिनो रथिभिस्तुरंगिणो हथिभिर्हस्तिपकां व हस्तिपेः। मिमिलुर्ववृधे तती रणः परितः सुस्रुवुरस्त्रनिर्झराः ॥ अथ भोसलवंदाभर्तुरुद्रकोषारभद्ये भटच्छटा । नटित सम समित्तंटे स्फुटा त्रुटितागातिघटा बलोत्कटा ॥ अथ शाहसुतस्य सैनिकैः पुरमाक्रम्यत चोलभूपतेः। वरणप्रसभाधिरोहणेर्भुवि किं साहसिनां दुरासदम्।। महसां निधिरित्थमेकभूरमणश्चोलपतिं निरस्य तम् । स्वकरेऽकृत चोलमेदिनीमपि तञ्जानगरं तदास्पदम् ॥ उदपादि ततस्तनूभवस्तुलजाराज इति क्षमापतेः। परिवृद्धिमुपानयन्मुदं परिवृद्धिं स दधिहने दिने ॥ धरणीपरिणीतिमूर्जितामथ शाहाधिपतेर्गुणोदधेः । प्रचकार च निर्ववार च प्रभुमौिलः स हि तत्त्वकोविदः ॥ शुभैर्गुणैस्च्यम्बकरायधीरः श्रेयानुदर्काव्यभिचारितर्कः । देशान्तविश्रान्तयशा महीन्दोरसेवताभ्यर्णममात्यमौलिः ॥ लयम्बकार्यस्य गुणानुकारी नृसिंहरायस्य तदग्रजस्य । आनन्दरायस्तनुभूरमात्यः प्राप्तोर्थन्तकं प्रेमपदं क्षितीन्दोः ॥ सेतुनेतुरधुना विपत्तिराकार्णितैव यवनेन्द्रयूथपाः । राजरामविषये वितन्वते विष्ठवं तदुभयं सुदुःसहम् ॥ भाषितं तदवनीहिमद्युतेराक्षलय्य नयतत्त्वकोविदः । ऊर्जिताश्रयतया मनोहरामभ्यधत्त स गिरं मिताक्षराम् ॥ सेतुनेतुरवसीदतो विना त्वां परं हि द्यारणं न दृइयंते। नैष योद्धमरिभिः पगल्भते संधिकर्म तु न ते<sup>ऽ</sup>नुमन्वते ॥ कर्तुमईसि तदस्य पालनं पर्युदस्तपरिपन्थिमण्डलम् । रक्षणं हि दारणाभिकाङ्किणां खत्कुलस्य सहजं गुणं विदुः ॥

इत्यमात्यवचसा स वाहिनीपेषणं नरपतिर्भुदाशिषत् । अञ्जनाधिकटकं चमपतिः संनिवेश्य कियतोशि सैनिकान । दारुणप्रहरणां चमुं दधत्प्रत्ययात्समिति माधुरं बलम् ॥ प्रस्फरन्नलिकवर्गनिर्गतपौढसीसगुलिकागणैरपि । रंहसा धनुषि संहितैः दारैर्माधुरानुदनुददूटच्छटा ॥ माधुरीधमधुनीत दारुणे ज्ञाहभूपतिचमूस्तदा रणे । शाहभूहिमरुचेश्वम्पतिस्तन्निदेशमथ मुन्नि धारयन् । सेतुनाथमतनिष्ट हृष्टमाधृतविष्ठवमुपेतवैभवम् ॥ तेन सेतुपतिनार्पितां मणिश्रेणिकां च कियतीमपि क्षितिम्। शाहभूवलभिदे न्यवेदयखूथपः पुनरुपागतो बलैः ॥ श्रुत्वा तद्राजरामिक्षितिपतिविपदुद्धारबद्धादरः श्री-शाहक्ष्मापालमौलियंवनविदलनोच्चण्डपाण्डित्यभाञ्जि । सैन्यानि स्वैरमइवद्दिपखुरजरजोदानधाराभिरद्भिः र्छम्पन्ति स्थापयन्ति द्रुतमदिशदथामंस्त सेतुं च यातुम् ॥ अथ क्षितीन्द्रो रघुनाथसेतुं पातिष्ठताखण्डलविक्रमश्रीः । निषेव्यमाणः पृतनाप्रकाण्डैश्वण्डैः प्रतापैरिव मूर्तिमद्भिः ॥ स्नातः पयोधौ विधिना स रामकोदण्डकोटिव्यतिषद्भधन्ये । ततः क्षितीन्द्रः सचमूसमूहस्तञ्जानगर्युनमुखतां दधानः। प्रतिष्ठते स्मानुपमानतेजा हेमन्तलीलामवलोकमानः ॥ पैरिः समुक्तेरिति सेव्यमानस्तञ्जापुरीं प्राविदादुर्वरेन्द्रः। पुष्परफुरत्तीरणधोरणीभिहिमाम्बुसेकैरपि लोभनीयाम् ॥ ततो निदिष्टस्य बलस्य राजरामावनोदारगुणां जयाङ्काम् । उपानयंश्वारवराः प्रवृत्तिं सिंहासनीह्नासिनि शाहभूपे ॥ बलैर्महाराज भवन्निदिष्टैर्दिङ्घीन्द्रसैन्यानि विदारितानि । स राजरामश्च तथाभिगुप्तस्तदञ्चति त्वां महती यद्याःश्रीः ॥ दिल्लीपतेः संप्रति यूथपालाः केचिहृहीता दलिताश्च केचित् । विदारिताः के अपि विभो त्वदीयेहिताश्च तिसंधुरसैन्धवीधाः ॥ स्वात्मा यदुक्जीवति रक्षति क्ष्मां तत्त्वत्पसादादिति राजरामः । स मन्यते भूवलयामरेन्द्र तदप्रतीपस्तव हि प्रतापः ॥ प्रमोदसान्द्रः क्षितिपालचन्द्रः श्रुत्वेति वाणीमधिगोष्टि तेषाम् । संमानतो इर्षयदाशु चेतस्तस्य प्रसादा न हि जातु वन्ध्यः ॥ ग्रामोत्तुङ्गतुरङ्गदन्तिशि**विकाहेमाभिषेकादिभिः** सानन्दं कविबृन्दमाकलयतः द्याहेदातुः कीर्तयः ।

मुक्तादामपरंपराः परिलसन्मङीमतङीस्रजो
भद्रश्रीरचना भजन्ति ककुभामाकल्पमाकल्पताम् ॥

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पश्यत्पादनयादिमाखिलनयस्वातन्त्र्यमन्यादृशं
धर्मिग्राहकमानसिद्धममृतस्फीताश्च यस्योक्तयः ।
तस्य श्रीधरवेङ्काटेशसुधियो लिङ्कार्यसूनोः कृती
श्रीशाहेन्द्रविलासकाव्यतिलके सर्गोऽजनिष्टाष्टमः ॥

Sâhêndravil âsak âvya.

(8) Sâmavêda Venkatêsvara Sastrin, who wrote the *Upagranthabhûshya* and several other works in connection with the Sâmavêda. He was the son of Ikkiri Appâ Sâstrin already mentioned among the learned men of the village of Kandaramânikyam.

अस्ति प्रयागाभिधमुत्तमं नः पदं प्रथिव्यां ब्रिजगत्प्रसिद्धम्। तलाष्ट्रतासी दिवमुत्पतन्ति श्रुतिर्यदीयं महिमानमाह ॥ तत्र कीत्राकगोत्राणां वैश्वामित्राधमर्घणैः । कौशिकपवरी येषां साङ्काध्ययनशालिनाम्। बहुश्रुतानां साधूनां सुजीलानां सुधर्मिणाम् ॥ आब्रह्मसोमविच्छेदरहितानां कुलोडवः । श्रीनिवासाभिधो विद्वानप्पाद्यास्त्रीति विश्रुतः ॥ पूर्णानन्दयतित्वं च प्राप्यान्ते ब्रह्मतां गतः । तस्यात्मजोहं नाम्ना मामुर्व्या सर्वे वदन्ति हि ॥ वेङ्केटेश्वरज्ञास्त्रीति काव्यायनमहामुनेः । उपग्रन्थस्य तस्यैव कृता व्याख्या तदाज्ञया ॥ गायलगानं निर्णीतं ऋकस्वरस्यापि निर्णयः। सुब्रह्मण्यस्वरस्यापि निर्णयः शास्त्रतः कृतः ॥ सामव्याकरणस्यापि व्याकृतिर्विदादीकृता । सामतन्त्राभिधानस्य सामस्वरविधानतः ॥ यज्ञेषु चमसादीनां भक्षणस्य च निर्णयः । आपस्तम्बम्नीन्द्रस्य तात्पर्येण ततः परम् ॥ आपस्तम्बस्य सुलस्य प्रावभेदे च निर्णयः । ब्रान्दोग्यभाष्यं विदुषां कृतमान्तं च यन्मतम् ॥ श्रीतोपासाविधिश्रीव मया संव्याकृतोऽभवत् । सामव्याकरणस्यापि सामतन्त्रस्य च स्फुटम् ॥ व्याकृति गणनाथी में कृतवान्हृदयस्थितः ।

कात्यायनकृतस्यैव प्रायश्चित्तविधेरिह ॥
व्याख्यां संग्रहतः कृत्वा प्रयोगस्य च निर्णयम् ॥
सर्वेषामुपकाराय याज्ञिकानां करोम्यहम् ॥
काहं क्षचेष निगमार्णवरत्नकुंभः
कात्यायनस्य करुणानिधिनैव तेन ॥
सुस्वम एत्य कथितं क्रियतां मदीयोपग्रन्थभाष्यमिति सा कुरुते तदाज्ञा ॥

Upagranthabháshya.

Another contemporary of Râmabhadra-Dîkshita was Appâ Dîkshita or Appâdhvarin of Mâyavaram, who wrote his Âchâranavanîta between A. D. 1696-1704, in the reign of Sâhajî I. Other works by the same author are the Madanabhûshanabhûna and the Gaurindyûrachampû. He belonged to the Srîvatsa gôtra and his father's name was Chidambara-Dîkshita of Killayûr. In A. D. 1696, in the Cyclic year Dhâtri, during the reign of Sâhajî, he went to Tanjore to attend the yûga (sacrifice) performed by Tryambakûmâtya-Dîkshita (i. e. Tryambakarao Peshva). The latter was then officiating as minister in place of his elder brother's son Ânandarâyamakhin (Ânandarao Peshva), who was still a youth. After the sacrificial ceremonies were over, the king detained Appâ Dîkshita at Tanjore for about three months in order to hear him recite the Mahâbhûrata. On his departure after three months, he was desired by the king to write a digest on the law, religion, and customs of the country. He, accordingly, began the Âchâranavanîta in A. D. 1696, and together with his son completed it after a lapse of eight years in A. D. 1704.

It begins as follows:-

वन्दे गुरूनुदयमूर्तिब्धाभिधाना-न्यद्गोविज्यम्भणमहो जगतस्तमोनुत् । तान्पिह्नशास्यभिधलोकगुरोः पुराण-पुण्यानुभावकृतभूमितलावतारान् ॥ गौरीमायूरनाथाङ्गिपद्मेन्दिन्दिरमानसः । अप्पाध्वरी वितर्नुते सदाचारस्य संग्रहम् ॥ आलत्त्रधिवासस्य पिछद्यास्त्रिबुधेद्यातुः । आचारनवनीताख्यं निबध्नाति कृपाबस्तात् ॥ किंचिद्ज्ञः काहमण्याध्वरिपदविदितो धर्मद्यास्त्रं क चेदं वेदेभ्यः प्रोद्धृतं यन्मनुमुखमुनिभिर्वेदतत्वार्थविद्धिः । किंतु स्वाधीनवृत्तेर्वटविटपितले सेन्यमानस्य ज्ञाधी-र्बुद्धेः संपेरकस्य प्रकटितयशसः पश्यत पौढिमानम् ॥ श्रीज्ञाहक्षितिपालनायकदयादत्तान्नभौगोस्कस-द्रुद्धा्त्कर्षविभावितश्रुतिबहुस्मृत्यर्थसारोदयः । उ सभ्यानां प्रमदाय सर्वविषयान्धर्मात्रहस्योत्तरा-न्संगृह्णाति मितैः पदैरधिवसन्मायूरमप्पाध्वरी ॥

<sup>6</sup> This author has been already mentioned on p. 137 above.

End :-

धातुवर्षे यदा यज्ञसेवार्थमहमागतः । श्रीमहाराजराजस्य मन्त्रिणस्यम्बकपभीः ॥ महाराजस्तु मां प्रीत्या स्वसभायामवासयत् । भारतश्रवणार्थाय रात्निदिवमुदारधीः ॥ यदा मासलयादूर्ध्वं प्राप्यानुज्ञां महीपतेः । गन्तुमिच्छामि च तदा धर्मशास्त्रनिबन्धने ॥ महाराजेन चाजातो गौरीमायूरमागतः । तस्मिन्वर्षे वृश्चिकार्के धर्मशास्त्रसुधानिधेः ॥ एकेनैव मया पुलयुक्तेन शनकैः कृते । बुद्धिदण्डेन मथने रात्निंदिवमनेकधा ॥ अष्टभिर्लब्धवानस्मि वत्सरैस्तत्फलं महत्। आचारनवनीतं तन्मृदु सर्वमनोहरम् ॥ महाराजस्य दयया तत्संग्राह्यमभूडूवि । समाप्तं पञ्चददाभिः सहस्रेर्प्रन्थसङ्खयया ॥ प्रचारोष्स्य महाराजाधीन एव हि सर्वथा। अहमप्पाध्वरी नाम्ना महाराजेन सादरम् ॥ दत्तां महीं समादाय \* \* दिसंभृतैः । धान्यैः परंपरासिद्धे प्रामे कृष्या समार्जितैः ॥ कुर्वन्कुडुम्बभरणं पुलपालैः समावृतः । श्रेयः प्रार्थयमानः सन्महाराजस्य सन्ततम् ॥ आयुःशेषं सुखं वस्तुमिच्छाम्यग्निक्रियान्तिके । मनोरथो महानेष महाराजेन पूर्यताम् ॥ एकक्ष्मापतिपूर्वपुण्यसुकृतीत्कर्षेण लब्धोदयो दीपाम्बोदरवासभाग्यमहिमप्रख्यातपुण्योचयः। श्रीज्ञाहिक्षितिराट् प्रज्ञास्तु वसुधामाचन्द्रमप्पाध्वरी यइत्तान्नबलेन धर्मविषयं शास्त्रं समग्रन्थयत् ॥ श्रीमाचिदम्बरमखीन्द्रसुतेन वत्स-वंशाम्बुराशिविधुना विधिशास्त्रमार्गे । सञ्चारनिर्मलिधया सकलार्थबोध-माचारसारनवनीतिमिदं गृहीतम् ॥

Again, in his Madanabhûshanabhana:-

याः सर्वत्न सुधासमाः सुरभितं कुर्वन्ति दिङ्गण्डलं याभ्यश्च्योतित माधुरी बुधमनःसन्तोषसन्दायिनी । याश्चावेक्ष्य सभासदामिततरां मान्या वयं तादृशा-मप्पायज्वकविर्गिरां कवियता किं नो भयं संसदः ॥

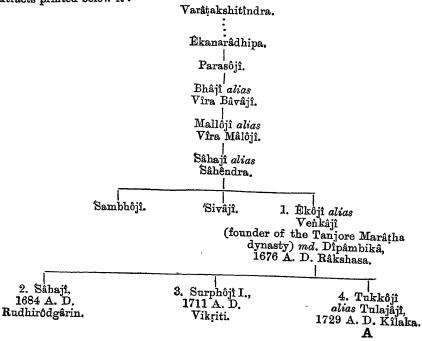
पारिपार्श्विकः--अस्ति जानामि ॥

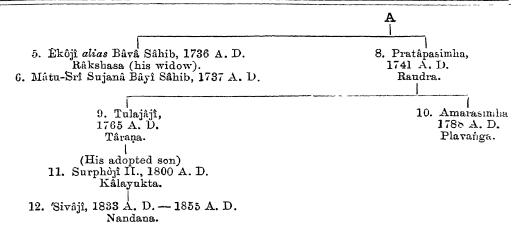
तातो यस्य चिदम्बरेश्वर इति प्रख्यातनामा मखी यद्रात्निदिवदत्तह्य्यनिवहादानैककृत्याः सुराः । श्रीवत्सान्वयवारिधीन्दुरवसद्यः किञ्चयूनीमनि श्रीमान्विश्वतकीर्तिराद्रहृदयः पुण्ये अत्रहारे सुधीः ।। अद्य खलु तत्तनयो अयं गौरीमायूरमध्यास्ते ।

सूत्रधारः—(साभ्युपगमम्) प्रख्यातिवद्याः खलु तद्वंद्यीया जगत्याम् । पारिपार्श्विकः—(सिद्दारःकम्पम्) अस्ति किममुना कविना प्रणीतः प्रबन्धः। सूत्रधारः—

किं न श्रुतः कविवरेण कृतस्त्वयासौ भाणः सभाजनवद्गीकरणप्रवीणः । द्रष्टुर्जनस्य हृदयं परतो निरुन्धे तत्तादृशो मदनभूषणनामधेयः ॥

In conclusion, I give a revised pedigree of the Maratha Rajas of Tanjore, based partly on the extracts printed below it: —





Kâtturâja or Sâhajî II., whose relationship is still uncertain, reigned as the seventh prince for about a year.

आसीदाद्यावकादाप्रसृतसितयद्या दक्षिणाद्याविभूषा द्यौर्यस्त्रीकेलिसौधायितकरकमलोदग्रराजस्कृपाणः **।** नानादेशोपसीदद्वधजननिकरस्तूयमानावदान-श्चण्डांशोरन्ववाये त्रिभुवनमहिते श्रीवराटक्षितीन्द्रः ॥ तदन्ववाये प्रथितप्रभावः श्रीमानभूदेकनराधिपो यः । औदार्यशौर्यादिगुणैरवन्यां पुरातनक्षोणिभृतोऽत्यशेत ॥ तस्मादजायत निजायतनं गुणानामाजानबेाधविमलः परसोजिनामा । यस्य प्रतापदहनं करवालधूमः प्राप्ताविपक्षमनुमापयतीह चित्रम् ॥ अस्तोकाचक्रवालाचलवलयलसत्कीर्तिरासीदम्षमा-दासिक्तारातिभूमीपरिबृहदलनोद्दामभीमप्रतापः। तत्तादृग्दानलक्ष्मीविहरणकलनासौधहस्तारविन्दी भूयः पुण्यैरगण्यैर्जनकमनुसरन्वीरबावाजिनामा ॥ तस्मादुद्यत्प्रतापः कमलभव इवाभ्यस्तसत्यानुवृत्ति-र्जज्ञे पाठीनकेतुप्रमथन इव प्राप्तभूरिप्रकर्षः । क्ष्मालक्ष्मीसाहचर्यस्फुरदुरुमहिमा पद्मनाभेन तुल्यः मौढत्यागावधूतामरतरुविभवो वीरमालोजिनामा ॥ तस्यासीत्पूर्णपुण्यः सुरयुवतिगणस्तूयमानप्रदास्तिः सूनुः शाहेन्द्रनामार्जुन इव नियतं धर्ममार्गानुसारी । राकानीहारभानुद्युतिहसनरुचिभीसुरा यस्य कीर्ति-र्दानश्रीश्चोज्जिज्ममे सततमधिधरं कर्णमार्गप्रवृत्ता ॥ तस्मादन्नेरिवासन्विधिहरहरयः पूर्वेपुण्यप्रभावा-देकक्ष्मापालदांभुक्षितिपतिद्यिवभूजानयो नामतो ये । तत्न ज्येष्ठो गुणीचैरपि च जननतः दांभुभूमीमहेन्द्रो धीरस्तस्यानुजन्मा शिवनृपतिरभूदेकभूभृत्ततोपि ॥

अनेकदुर्गाधिपतिः शिवोसी सामन्तचूडामिंगरिक्तिताङ्किः ।
चमूपतीनां यवनावनीन्दोः संवर्तकालानलतां प्रपेदे ॥
डिझीपुराधीशमुखावनीशदुर्वारगर्वप्रहमान्त्रिकः सः ।
वर्क्तथनीरन्वहमतदीया निजपतापज्वलने जुहाव ॥
तस्यानुजन्मैकधरावलारिर्मुक्तामिंगिसलवंशाजातः ।
गुणैरशेषींवबुधपशस्तेरन्वर्थनामेति यमाहुरार्याः ॥
बुद्धा बृहस्पतिसमः किल तस्य मन्त्री काकोजिपिंग्डत इति प्रथितो बभूव ।
तहुद्धिमार्गघटिताखिलकार्यजातः स्वर्गं पुरन्दर इवैष शशास पृथ्वीम् ॥
तस्येकराजस्य गुणैरनूना वाणी विधातुः कमलेव विष्णोः ।
दाक्षायणीव स्मरशासनस्य दीपाम्बिकाभूत्किल धर्मपत्नी ॥
तस्यामभूवन्नवनीसुधांशोः शाहेन्द्रनामा शरभाभिधानः ।
भुवि प्रतीतस्तुलजाभिधन्य समानक्रपाकृतिशालिनोऽमीं ॥

Bhôsalavamsannuktávall.

प्रतापसिंहिसितिपालतेजसा पराभवन्बिह्नरिप स्वयं सदा ।
न शोभते किंतु निलीय नक्तं गृहे गृहे कम्पत एव सर्वदा ॥
प्रतापसिंहिसितिपालसूनोर्महीभुजः श्रीतुलजाह्वयस्य ।
तेजोविशेषं परिगृह्य पूणं विधुं विधिः पर्वाण साधु चक्रे ॥
श्रीमचुलजभूपालसूनोः शरभभूपतेः ।
तेज एव नभोमार्गे सूर्यनाम्मा विराजते ॥
शरभक्ष्मापतेः कीर्ति श्रुत्वा मौलिः प्रकम्पते ।
सुवः पातभयाच्छेषोऽकणं एव ततः कृतः ॥

Bálabôdhini by Sêshabhatta.

### BOOK-NOTICE.

ON THE INDIAN SECT OF THE JAINAS. By J. GEORG BUHLER, C.I.E., LL.D., PH.D. Translated from the German. Edited, with an Outline of Jaina Mythology, by Jas. Burgess, C.I.E, LL.D., F.R.S.E (London: Luzac & Co., 1903.)

THE Jainas of India are not a very large community; but there are several points of interest connected with them. We are glad to receive the translation by Dr. James Burgess of a valuable paper read by the late Dr. Buhler at a meeting of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Vienna, in May 1887. It extends to 79 pages.

Dr. Bühler was a very careful and accurate scholar; and it is very satisfactory to have this subject discussed up to date. The translation has been carefully executed and runs in simple natural English. Some useful footnotes have been added by the translator.

The relations of Jainism to Buddhism have not always been properly understood even by professed Orientalists. There are singular resemblances and singular differences between the two systems; and there are approximations of Jainism to Brahmanical doctrine. More than any other creed the Jaina is opposed to the taking of animal life. The Jainas have not taken to agriculture, but mainly to commerce; the former would have involved the death of living creatures. They have built the most splendid temples in India; and they have largely cultivated literature both Sanskrit and popular. Like Buddhism, Jainism is decidedly atheistic.

J. M. M.

<sup>7</sup> Compare also verse 4 quoted on p. 180 above from Venkațakrishna-Dikshita's Uttarachampû, where Tulaja is called Tukkôji.

## NOTES ON INDIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

BY J. F. FLEET, I.C.S. (RETD.), PH.D., C.I.E.

## Amôghavarsha I. as a patron of literature.

ROM some time in A. D. 814 or 815, to about A. D. 877-78, there reigned in Western India a king, of the great Rashtrakuta dynasty, whose proper name has not yet come to light,1 and who is best known, by his principle biruda or secondary appellation, as Amoghavarsha I. That he began to reign in A. D. 814 or 815, is shewn by the Sirûr inscription of A. D. 866, as explained in Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 204 f. His latest known record is the Kanheri inscription which is dated, without any further details, in the Saka year 799 (expired), = A. D. 877-78.2 And a literary statement, noticed on page 199 below, indicates, — if it is applicable to him, as most probably it is, - that he brought his long reign to an end by abdicating.

Other birudas of Amoghavarsha I., established by records of his own time, were Atisayadhavala, Lakshmivallabha, Mahârâjaśarva, Nripatunga, and Prithvîvallabha.<sup>3</sup> Subsequent similar records present for him the birudas of Maharajashanda, Srivallabha, and Viranarayana, and apparently Durlabha 4 And a literary work entitled Kavirajamarga, which was composed during his reign and under his patronage, and which is the subject of my next Note, puts forward for him the further birudas of Kritakrityamalla, Naralôkachandra, Nîtinirantara, and Nityamallavallabha.

There are literary references to a Nripatunga, which most probably allude to Amôghavarsha I., though that same biruda belonged to also his successors Gôvinda IV. and Kakka II. Thus, the Kanarese writer Nagavarma, — the second author of that name, who, as has been shewn by Mr. R. Narasimhachar, flourished about A. D. 1150,5 — has presented, in illustration of sûtra 74 of his Kavyavalokana, a stanza in the Kanda metre which, with the reading Nripatungan in preference to the various reading nripa-putram, runs:6 — Kari-vôl bhadra-guṇam kêsari-vôl nirvyâja-śauryyan=ambhônidhi-vôl śaran-âgata-rakshana-patu giri-vôl nishkampa-chittan=â Nripatumgam: — "Possessed of auspicious good qualities like an elephant (of the bhadragaja class); possessed of unfeigned courage like a lion; capable like the ocean of protecting those who sought refuge with him; and immovable as a mountain in his intentions; (such was) that (well-known or famous) Nripatunga." So, also, the Kanarese writer Kêśirâja, — who has been placed by Mr. Rice about A. D. 1225,7 — has presented in his grammar entitled Sabdamanidarpana, as an illustration to sûtra 140, part of a stanza in the same metre which runs:8 — Vîran=udâram śuchi gambhîram naya-śâli kaidu-vottara dêvamg=âr=eragar Nripatumgamge: — "Who will not make obeisance to Nripatunga, who was brave and generous and pure and profoundly sagacious and conversant with polity, and was a very god among those who carry weapons?" And another Kanarese writer, Bhattåkalanka, in his grammar entitled Karnatakaśabdanuśasana, which with its gloss named Bhashamanjara and the commentary thereon named Manjarimakaranda he finished in A. D. 1604, has put forward, in

<sup>1</sup> Regarding some indications that we may expect to find that it either was Narayana, or else was a name beginning with Vishnu, see Ep. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 100.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Vol. XIII. above, p. 135, No. 43 A. 3 See Ep Ind. Vol. VI. p. 174 f. 5 On the points that there were two Kanarese writers named Nagavarma, that the first of them, the author of

the Chhandômbudh; and probably of also the Kanarese Kêdambari, is to be placed about the close of the tenth century A. D., and that the second of them, the author of the Kavyavalokana, the Karnatakabhashabhashana, and the Vastukiia, flourished about the middle of the twelfth century, see Mr. R. Narasimhachar's remarks in his Någavarmma's Kåvyåvalökanam and Karnåtakabhåshåbhåshanam, Bangalore, 1903, Introd. pp. 1 to 7.

<sup>6</sup> See the Kavyavat kanam, mentioned in the preceding note, p. 55, verse 339.

<sup>7</sup> Karnátaka jabdánusásanam (see note 9 below), Introd. p. 35.

The Rev. Dr. Kittel's Sabdamanidarpana, Mangalore, 1872, p. 171.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> The full details of the date, — which seems to apply strictly to the completion of the Manjarimakaranda, as given in Mr. Rice's Karnatakasabdanusasanam, Bangalore, 1890, pp. 290, 291, are the Sobhakrit samvatsara, Sålivåhana-Saka-varsha 1526 (current), Mågha sukla 5, Guruvåra, the Rêvatî nakshatra, the Kumbha ligna, and the rising of Sukra (Venus). And these details are correct for Thursday, 26th January, A. D. 1604. On that day, the given tithi ended at about 9 hrs. 55 min. after mean sunrise (for Ujjain); and, according to all the three systems of the nakshairas, the moon was in Rêvatî at sunrise and up to about 12 hrs. 19 min. after mean sunrise.

idiastration of sûtra 352, a stanza in the same metre which runs. 10 — Irmmadi Balige Dadhîchige mürmmadi Jimûtavâhanangam bageyal nûrmmadi Sibigam diţa sâsirmmadi migileilege châgadol Nripatungam: — "Nripatunga excelled Bali twice, and Dadhîchi three times, and, when you think it over, even Jimûtavâhana a hundred times, and Sibi certainly a thousand times, in liberality in the world."

The three allusions quoted above do not in any way indicate that the Nripatunga who was the subject of them was an author. One of them simply praises him for his liberality. And the other two merely eulogise him for various other qualities, amongst which literary attainments are not mentioned. But another passage in the Karnāṭakaśabdānuśāsana does plainly indicate a Nripatunga who was, or was believed to have been, an author. It is found in Bhaṭṭākalaṅka's commentary on sūtra 288, where, in referring to a certain point of difference between the northern and the southern poets, he has said: — Dakshin-ôttara-mārga-bhêda-bhinua-prayôga-chāturī-prapaūchô Nṛipatunga-granthê drashṭavyaḥ: 11 — "A clever disquisition on the different usages of the varying styles of the south and the north, is to be seen in the book of Nripatunga." The bearing of this allusion will be explained further on.

We thus have four literary passages, all presenting the name Nripatunga, and one of them tending to indicate its Nripatunga as an author. Two of them, - those which are contained in the Karnátakasabdánusásana, --- are probably to be quite correctly taken as referring to one and the same person. And we may, without prejudice, take the other two also, - those which are contained in the Káryáralókana and the Sabdamandarpana, — as most likely referring to that same person. But there is nothing in any of them to shew explicitly who that person was. From the second of them, however, - the passage in the Sabdamandarpana, - we may infer that he was a king. And we know that the appellation Nripatunga was a biruda of a king, namely Amôghavarsha I., who had reigned for a long time in that part of the country to which the works themselves, from which these passages have been quoted, belong. Also, we know, as will be shewn in my next Note, that that king had been represented as patronising and being personally versed in a certain line of study, to such an extent that a particular work came, and not unreasonably, to be spoken of, in much later times, as "the book of Nripatunga" in one of the passages quoted from the Karndtakaśabdánysidsana. And there is, therefore, no objection to assuming that the Nripatuiga of all these four passages is that king, namely, the Råshtrakûta king Amôghavarsha I. In this, we agree, partially at least, with Mr. Rice, who has already, in 1890, identified with Amôghavarsha I. the Nripatunga who is mentioned in the two passages quoted from the work of Bhattakalanka,12 without, however, assigning any reasons for the identification. And there is at any rate this to be said: namely, that the identification cannot apparently do any harm, inasmuch as it does not entail anything opposed to what we know about the history, both political and literary, of the periods to which belonged Amôghavarsha I. and the authors of the Karyaralokana, the Sabdamanidarpana, and the Karnal akasabdanusasana.

Evidence that Amoghavarsha I. was, or was believed to have been, an author, has been found in the following fact. There is a small Sanskrit tract, of about thirty verses, consisting of questions and answers on moral subjects, and entitled Ratnamalika or Prasnottaramala. Among the Brahmans, some claim that the author of it was Samkaracharya; while others assign

<sup>10</sup> Karnûtakaśabdûnuśûsanam (see the preceding note), p. 194. — This verse helps to illustrate further my remarks on the title Mûvadi-Chôla and similar appellations; see Ep. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 51, note 4.

<sup>11</sup> Karnātakaśabdānuśāsanam, p. 161. The word Nispatunga is there printed in italics. I presume that that was done either to emphasise it, or to mark it as a proper name, and not to indicate that it is in any way a doubtful reading.

<sup>12</sup> Karnátakasabdánusásanam, Introd. p. 7.

<sup>13</sup> For the matter stated in this paragraph, — except in respect of the fuller reference to the Tibetan translation, for the basis of which I am indebted to Mr. F. W. Thomas, — see Vol. XII. above, p. 218, and Vol. XIX. p. 378 ff., and Dr. Bhandarkar's Report on Sanskrit MSS. for the year 1883-84, Notes, p. 2, and his Early History of the Dekkan, in the Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I. Part II., p. 200 f.

it to a certain Samkaraguru. And the Svêtâmbara Jains attribute it to Vimala, by piesenting in their recension of it a verse which runs: — Rachitâ sitapata-gurunâ vimalâ Vimalêna iatna-mâl-êva Praśnôttaramâl=êyam kantha-gatâ kim na bhûshayati: — "This pellucid Praśnôttaramâla, or string of questions and answers, has been composed by Vimala, a preceptor who wore the white garment: 14 when it is in the throat (for recitation), does it not adorn a man, just like a string of jewels placed on the throat?" On the other hand, the Digambara Jain recension of the work presents, at the end, a verse which runs: - Vivêkât=tyakta-râjyêna râjñ=êyam Ratnamâlıkâ rachıt=Âmôghavaishėna su-dhiyam sad-alamkritih: - "This Ratnamalika, or string of jewels, an excellent ornament for the learned, has been composed by king Amôghavarsha, who laid aside the sovereignty through discrimination," or, as Dr. Bhandarkar has translated, "through the growth of the religious sentiment," or "in consequence of the growth of the ascetic spirit in him." Now, the appellation Amôghavarsha belonged, among the Rûshtrakûtas, to also Vaddiga, a great-grandson of Amôghavarsha I., and, amongst others of his descendants, to a member of the family who is known only as Amôghavarsha II., and to Kakka II. And it was not confined to the Rashtrakûtas; it was, for instance, also another name of the Paramara king Vâkpati-Muñja.15 However. Amôghavarsha II. did not reign at all. Kakka II. did reign; but he did not abdicate; he was overthrown by the Western Châlukya Taila II. We do not know of any grounds for thinking that Vaddiga terminated his reign by abdicating. And Vakpati-Muñja was killed in fighting against Taila II.16 But Amôghavarsha I. may well have brought his long reign voluntarily to an end, in order to obtain, in his old age, peace and quiet in religious retirement; as was done, just about a century later, though after only a comparatively short period of rule and with the object of apparently at once securing a refuge from all worldly troubles in death, by the great Western Ganga prince Mârasimha II.17 And, in these circumstances, we may understand that it was the Râshtrakûta king Amôghavarsha I., to whom the Digambara Jams sought to point as the author, in their opinion, of the Ratnamalika or Prasnottaramala. It is to be added that there is a Tibetan translation of this tract. This translation has been mentioned on previous occasions, in connection with Amôghavarsha I. And the essential point in it may as well be now stated more fully and definitely. The Tibetan translation exists in two versions. Dr. Schiefner edited one version in 1858. And in his remarks on it he gave a translation of a final verse which stands in only the other version. His German translation of that verse, rendered into English, runs thus: - "This jewel-wreath, made by Amôghôdaya, of the king who abandoned his inly established sovereignties, is the best ornament of the wise." In respect of this, Mr. F. W. Thomas has explained to me that the name of the author is expressed by the words don • yod • hehar, in which don • yod is a well-established equivalent of the Sanskrit amôgha, and hchar means the Sanskrit udaya. From this it follows that Dr. Schiefner was quite justified in restoring the name as Amôghôdaya: that name was distinctly suggested by the text; and, at that time, the Sanskrit original of the work had not been made known, and little, if anything, was known about any Amôghavarsha. Mr. Thomas, however, has kindly examined a block-print of that Tibetan version, which is in the Library of the India Office. He remarks that, with the Sanskrit original to guide us, the actual reading hchar, = udaya. may be reasonably corrected into char, 'rain,' = varsha, varsha, which gives at once the name Amôghavarsha. He also finds that, with one or two other equally slight and justifiable emendations, the Tibetan verse reproduces exactly the whole meaning of the original Sanskrit verse of the Digambara recension. And he has further shewn me that both the Tibetan versions include a colophon, wherein the author is again mentioned as don • yod • hehor, for don • yod • char, = Amôghavarsha, and is described in terms which represent the Sanskrit Mahardja, Kavivara, and Mahdchdrya. Thus we may safely and finally substitute the name Amôghavarsha for Dr. Schiefner's Amôghòdaya. It must, however, be remarked, though it should hardly be necessary, that even the understanding that the Tibetan translation also indicates an Amôghavarsha as the author of the work,

16 See Vol. XXI. above, p. 168.

<sup>14</sup> The text, however, might possibly be taken to mean "by the pure preceptor Sitapata."

<sup>15</sup> See Prof. Kielhorn's List of the Inscriptions of Northern India, in Ep. Ind. Vol. V., Appendix, p. 8, No. 46. 17 See Ep. Ind. Vol. V. p. 152.

does not add anything to the value of the Sanskrit verse. The Tibetan translation, being a translation of the Digambara recension, has naturally repeated the assertion made in that recension. It does not prove the assertion, any more than it would have disproved it if it had happened to present another name through being a translation of, for instance, the Svétâmbara recension. And all that we can say, is, that, according to the Digambaras the work was composed by an Amôghavarsha, and he was most probably Amôghavarsha I., but other sects attribute the work to other authors. We may, however, accept the Digambara recension as indicating that Amôghavarsha I., most probably, was remembered as having ended his reign by abdicating.

So far, we have been dealing only with possibilities. We now come to something definite, which does not, indeed, shew that the Råshtrakûta king Amôghavarsha I. was himself an author, but which does exhibit him as interested in a certain line of study, and as a patron of literature in connection with it.

There is a Kanarese metrical work entitled Kavirajamarga, which deals with alamkara or the art of ornate poetical expression. This work forms the subject of my next Note. The composition of this work has been attributed to Amôghavarsha I. That attribution, however, is a mistake. The author of the work was a person who has made himself known to us by the name But Amoghavarsha I. was his patron. The author of the work has made that of Kavisvara. point quite clear. But, further, he has credited his patron with inspiring at least part of the work. and has also represented himself as expressing his patron's views more or less throughout the whole work. And what we gather from it, is, that Amoghavarsha I. took, or was credited with taking. a special interest in the subject of alamkara, and directed, or was credited with directing, the composition of this work. This is the work which Bhattakalanka, in the seventeenth century, came to mention, in the passage in his Karna!akaśabdanuśasana which has been given on page 198 above and will be referred to again in my next Note, as Nripatungagrantha, "the book of Nripatunga;" being, no doubt, led to do so from recognising the meaning of the real author of the work, and from noticing the prominent place given in the colophons to the name Nripatunga, which is further mentioned so conspicuously in the opening verse in addition to being introduced in various other passages.

### SOME ANGLO-INDIAN TERMS FROM A XVIITH CENTURY MS.

BY SIR RICHARD C. TEMPLE, BART.

(Continued from p. 160.)

#### METCHLI.

Fol. 35. Metchlipatam, Soe called from ye Hindostan ore Moors Languadge word Metchli significinge fish and patam or Patanam a towne.

Not in Yule. [The word is for Hindostani machhli.]

#### MOCHA.

Fol. 48. built for ye trade to Mocho in ye Red Sea.

Fol. 98. I saw a horne of about 13: or 14: inches longe, in ye Very forme and Shape ye wee picture or carve a Vnicorn's horne it was of a very darke gray colour, I happened accidentally both to See and handle ye Same web gaue me more Satisfaction as to ye Vnicorne then I had before, web Shall be spoken of more at large in ye accompt of Mocho in the Red Sea [unfortunately there is no such "accompt" in the MS.].

Not in Yule [This is a pity, because there is a Moca in Sumatra, easily to be mixed up with it in reading the old books,]

#### MOGUL.

Fol. 140. The Kinge of Syam . . . Sent a New Radja (a Mogol bred and borne) to Janselone].

See Yule, s. v. Mogul. [An Indian Muhammadan of the ruling class.]

#### MOGUL, GREAT

- Fol. 8. all . . . . these mighty Kingdoms . . . brought Tributary to the Great Mogol.
  - Fol. 25. and condescendinge Obedience to y? Mogol.
  - Fol. 50. ye Ancestors of ye familie of this present Kinge revolted from ye Mogoll.
- Fol. 57. As for theire Idolatrous way of worship, they Enjoy it as fully as in any Other place in ve Empire of the Grand Mogoll (or territories of Golcondah).
- Fol. 59. Orixa: This Kingdome . . . Subject to y? Great Mogoll for y? most part but not altogeather.
- Fol. 66. however y? Mogoll was Extraordinary kind to him [Emir Jemla's Son] in all Other respects.
- Fol. 97. Pattana... longe Since become tributarie to y? Emperours of Hindostan (or great Mogol).

See Yule, s. v. Mogul, the Great.

#### MOHUR, GOLD.

- Fol. 68. he laded 60 Patellas with Silver and by credible report tenne wth Gold Moors.
- Fol. 72. Where-Vpon he gave in his present of . . . . Some Gold Moors.
- Fol. 94. They also Coyne Rupees here of ye finest refined Gold we are called gold Moors, they are of ye same Stampe, magnitude and weight the Silver ones are . . . . they passe very currant at  $15\frac{1}{4}$  and  $15:\frac{1}{2}$  rupees each . . . . . The Gold Moore is Valued att 01 lb 14s  $10\frac{1}{3}d$ .

See Yule, s. v. Mohur, Gold.

#### MOLUCCAS.

See Yule, s. v. Moluccas. [Quotation valuable as the earliest yet made of the modern spelling.]

MONSOON.

- Fol. 31. most Chiefely y? East India Company's goods that were to be Sent that Monsoone for England.
  - Fol. 38. but at Some time of y. Monzoone I have knowne them to be at Sea one month.
  - Fol. 75. ye great raines yt fall here Sometime before ye breakeinge up of the Monzoone.
- Fol. 81. & then (the Monsoone beinge shifted) to goe away with theire Ship and Sloope where they pleased.
- See Yule, s. v. Monsoon. For a full discussion of this word in all its senses, see ante, Vol, XXX, p. 393 ff.

#### MONSOON PLUMS.

Fol. 175. This Country [Achin] affordeth Severall Excellent good fruites Namely . . . . . . Monsoone Plums.

Not in Yule. [masana, mansana, Malay, through Portuguese mação, is the zyziphus jujuba or Indian plum, the commonest North Indian term for which is ber.]

#### MONTAPOLY.

Fol. 31. Salt peeter, Iron, Steele, wen is brought downe from ye high land Over this place wen is called Montapolee.

Not in Yule. [But see his Marco Polo, Vol. II. p. 297. It is on the Madras Coast near Masuhpatam.]

#### MONTHLY PAY.

Fol. 41. I have knowne Some persons . . . keep above 300 [punes] in constant Sallary, weh is Ordinarily 2 rupees every Moone.

Not in Yule. [A valuable reference to the old Indian custom of payment by the month, still obtaining for every kind of servant, from highest to lowest; official, commercial, and private.]

#### MOOLLAH.

Fol. 171. those taken aline were put to death every man Save One who Vpon his Examination was found to be a Mola: or Mahometan Priest.

Fol. 172. att wen one Mola or Other Vttereth 2 or 3 Sentences.

See Yule, s. v. Moollah.

#### MOOR.

- Fol. 8. these mighty Kingdoms were in a Short Space wholy Subdued by y. Moors . . . all of them now in generall wholy Submittinge to y. Mahometan yoke.
- Fol. 29. ye ffrench who in ye yeare 1672 tooke ye Citty S't Thomæ from ye Moor's forces.
- Fol. 36. The ffrench had a ffactory in this place [Metchlipatam] not many years agoe, but Since these troubles of S'! Thomæ, A Citty 3 English miles Southward of ffort S'! Georg's (they beinge Ambitious of honour & Conquest in these Easterne parts of y! World) tooke that Citty from a Small handfull of Moors.... they tooke S'! Thomæ w! much Ease, and kept it but 3 years and with much trouble and losse.
- Fol. 37. The firench Chiefe Resident in Metchlipatam was killed by y. Moors, what more of them there made their Escape by Sea.
- Fol. 39. Most Eminent Men that inhabit Metchlipatam and Guddorah are Mahometans viz! Moors and Persians.
  - Fol. 41. The Governour of Metchlipatam is a Moore.
- Fol. 44. The Moors have win in a Very few years put many grievous Affronts, both Vpon years put many grievous Affronts and Dutch.
  - Fol. 49. there are many Moors, beinge ye Retinue of ye Governour.
  - Fol. 56. Some ffortifications alsoe but all Vnder ye Government of ye Moors.
- Fol. 59. Orixa... Subject to ye Great Mogoll for ye most part but not altogeather by reason of Severall Radjas who before (ye Mahometan Conquest of ye Hindoos) possessed this Kingdome some of we are not as yet Subdued and brought Vnder ye Moorish Yoke.
- Fol. 73. y. Moors Governours haveinge Strict Orders to see them finished with all Speed and gunned and well manned.
- Fol. 80. The Commadore mentioned ye treaty of Peace, att won ye Moors Governour Seemed to be Struck win an admiration.

See Yule, s. v. Moor, an Indian Muhammadan. [See ante, Vol. XXX. p. 396 f.]

#### MOOREES.

See Yule, s. v. Piece-Goods, ed. 1903. [N. and E. p. 18, for 13th April 1680, — has "Moorees ordinary: Moorees fine.? a loin-cloth.]

#### MOORS.

Fol. 35. Metchlipatam, Soe called from y. Hindostan ore Moors Languadge word Metchli significing fish and patam or Patanam a towne.

See Yule, s. v. Moors, the Hindustani Language. [The above quotation is a century earlier than any of Yule's.]

#### MOSQUE.

 $F_{0l}$ . 8. the Mosquees or Tombs of y? Mahometans.

Fol. 45. They Congregate ye people to their Mosquees 4 times a day by Voice of man.

Fol. 51. ye Mosquees and Tombs of ye deceased Kings and Queens.

Fol. 174. all that piece of land whereon Standeth the Pallace ye great Mosques.

See Yule, s. v. Mosque = Masjid. [N. and E. p. 14, for 28th March 1680,—"was a Mussleman and built a Musseet in the Towne to be buried in." With reference to this quotation it is interesting to note that it relates to the death of the great Broker "Cassa Verona" [Kâŝî Viruṇṇa] and the dispute among the Natives as to whether he was a Hindu or a Musalman: a dispute that has arisen over other well-known personages, e.g., Kabîr, the reformer.]

#### MTICOA

Fol. 27. fishermen or ye like, those are called Moquaes.

See Yule, s. v. Mucoa, a fisherman on the Malabar and Coromandel Coasts. [N. and E. often refers to them. P. 3 for 9th Feb. 1680: "The 7 Muckwars or Mussulamen (whereof one since dead) that have been imprisoned ever since July last about a man then drowned were now discharged of their imprisonment." P. 37 for 27th Oct. 1680: "the Muckwas, Cattamaran-men and Cooleys had left the Town privately upon a combination." P. 39 for 26th Nov. 1680: "25 Muchwas captured by the peons at St Thoma." P. 40 for 7th Dec. 1680: "The Chief men of the Muckwaes being captured and committed to prison, all the rest came in and submitted themselves." The "Mussulamen" above means Mussoola-boatmen.]

#### MULMUL.

Fol. 158. ffrom Bengala . . . . Mulmuls.

See Yule, s. v. Mulmull, muslin.

#### MULTAN.

Fol. 62. to the Eldest Dara he gave Cabul and Multan.

Not in Yule.

#### MUSK.

- Fol. 61. This Kingdome [Bengala] most plentifully doth abound with . . . Muske in Codd and out of it.
- Fol. 101. with a Considerable investment of each Nation in Codde Muske, we is here [in Pattana] found to be very good, it is in generall taken from a Small deere of about 2 foot high, of we is this Countrey doth mightilie abound . . . . a muske deere . . . Great quantities of Muske brought from Cochin-China and China it selfe.

See Yule, s. v. Musk. [The quotations above are useful.]

#### MUSLIN.

- Fol. 3. provideinge great quantities of Muzlinge Callicoes &c.
- Fol. 56. great Store of Calicos are made here most Especially beteelis (won wee call Muzlin).
- Fol. 101. from Dacca: The Chiefe Commodities brought are fine Cossas, commonly called Muzlinge.

Fol. 162. And there wee pay for y. Chopp 2 pieces of very fine callicos or Muzlinge.

See Yule, s. v. Muslin. [All the above quotations are useful for the history of this word. See ante, Vol. XXVIII. p. 196.]

#### MUSSOOLA.

Fol. 27. The boats they doe lade and Vnlade Ships or Vessels with . . . . . are called Massoolas.

See Yule, s. v. Mussoola. [N. and E. p. 3, for 9th Feb. 1680, has "Muckwars or Mussulamen."]

#### MUSSULMAN.

- Fol. 39. Mahometans viz<sup>t</sup> Moors and Persians, a Sort of most Insolent men, Entitleinge themselves **Mussleman** viz<sup>t</sup> true believers although very Eroniously.
- Fol. 57. little or noe justice is to be acquired where ye Mahometans are Lords Over them, for it complaint be made to ye high Court of Iustice, ye Mussleman as they call themselves, Shall ('ertainly carry it (if he appears in Person). Onely we this one Saying Ka Mussleman jute bolta: Will a true believer lye.
- Fol. 65. it is against ye laws of God and his Prophet Mahomet he not beinge a Mussleman, ergo begged of him to desist such his desires.
- Fol. 81. And now the Moors come Vpon them for Satisfaction for a great Number of Musslemen they had killed and taken Prisoners.

See Yule, s. v. Mussulman. [The last quotation is an interesting early example of a mistake still sometimes made. See ante, Vol. XXII. p. 112.]

#### MYLAPORE.

Fol. 25. A Naique that lived neare Mylapore vizt S't Thomae.

Not in Yule. [It is now a part of Madras itself.]

#### MYROBALAN,

- Fol. 82. They [Portugals] make many Sorts of Sweetmeats vizt. . . . mirabolins.
- Fol 175. This Countrey [Achin] affordeth Severall Excellent good fruites, Namely . . . . . Mirablines.

See Yule, s. v. Myrobalan. [A variously spelt and pronounced term for astringent dried fruits of several species.]

#### NABOB.

- Fol. 65. Emir Jemla: hath now ye Government of Bengala Orixa and Pattana firmly by Phyrmand Setled Vpon him with an absolute Power and title of Nabob.
  - Fol. 66. they lost the best of Nabobs [in Emir Jemla].
- Fol. 69. The Governour hereof [Cuttack] . . . . is yo next in place to the Prince himselfe and hath you title of Nabob. Hee is put into place by yo Prince of Bengala and his councell . . . . I remember in you yeare 1674 . . . . a new Nabob was Sent from Dacca to Settle in Cattack.
- Fol. 70. he passed ye Vsual Ceremonie holding Vp both hand and downe Vpon his heels Sayinge Nabob Salamat: viz! Liue O Prince.
  - Fol 71. The Old Nabob of Cattack beinge Sent for to the Court at Dacca.
- Fol. 73. Some few days afterwards the Nabob rode through ye towne of Ballasore in his greatest State mounted upon a Very large Elephant and thus proceeded towards the Citty Cattack.
  - See Yule, s. v. Nabob; a Muhammadan Viceroy.

#### NAIK.

Fol. 25. The richer Sort more Especially those in Office, as Naiques (for soe y: Hindon Governours are Entitled) . . . . A Naique that liued neare Mylapore . . . . . where y: Countrey is Governed by y: Gentue Naiques.

See Yule, s. v. Naik, in its sense of a nobleman.

#### NARSAPORE

- Fol. 37. and there [the ffrench] Sent 4 or 5 men On Shore for Spies to Narsapore, who were very Suddenly Surprized in y. English ffactory where y. Moors cut off theire heads Vpon y. doore thrashold [May 1672].
- Fol. 46. Narsapore: Is ye lowest [most Northerly] towns of any Vpon this Coast, it lieth Some 40: or 45 miles below [i. e. to the North of] Metchlipatam, haveinge the benefit of an Excellent River, wen added much to the benefit of the place, and is called Narsapore river.

Not in Yule. [An important Factory in the early days of the European trade. See ante, Vol. III. p. 354 f.]

#### NEGAPATAM.

Fol. 142.  $y_{:}^{e}$  Southermost parts of  $y_{:}^{e}$  Choromandell Coast:  $Viz_{:}^{t}$  . . . Negapatam. See Yule, s. v. Negapatam.

#### NIPA.

Fol. 40. another Sort there is y' distilled from Neep toddy and y' is commonly called Nipa de Goa.

See Yule, s. v. Nipa. [The thatching palm of the estuaries East of the Hugli River, and the liquor distilled from it. It is now known as the Dhani [Dhunnie] palm.]

#### OMRAH.

- Fol. 25. and condescendinge Obedience to y. Mogol and his Omrahs.
- Fol. 62. Aurege-Zebe y. Emperour's 3rd Son haveinge y. best ffriends att Court namely of y. Omrahs and Emperours Councell.
- Fol. 67. he kept him at his owne Court, made him one of his Chiefest Omrahs and assosiates.

See Yule, s. v. Omrah. [It is the plural umard of amir (ameer, emir), and signifies a high official, a court grandee.]

#### OORIYA.

- Fol. 59. These inhabitants [of Orixa] are called Ourias, and be a very poore Idolatrous people.
- Fol. 85. y. Sufferers y. Jgnorant Gentues and Orixas . . . of all Jdolaters in India y. Orixas are most jgnorant.
- Fol. 86. much frequented wth wilde beasts, vizt Tygers: Bears: Rhinocerots: &c: wth alsoe dreadeth yth poore Orixas . . . . Cowries (all yth moneys knowne to yth ignorant Ourias) . . . The Ourias are a Very Strange Sort of Phisicians to theire Sick people.
- Fol. 87. and thus all y ouria Sicke folke are served . . . the Orixas bury not theire dead, nor burne them as y of Gentues doe, but heave them naked into y Rivers.

See Yule, s. v. Ooriya, who however gives no quotations. [An inhabitant of Orissa.]
OPIUM.

- Fol. 61. This Kingdome [Bengala] most plentifully doth abound with . . . . . . Opium (the best in Jndia).
  - Fol. 77. In Exchange for . . . . Opium.

Fol. 170. 600 warre Elephants diligently attended and Opium 3 times a day given them to animate them in ye highest degree.

See Yule. s. r. Opium.

#### ORAMMALL.

Fil. 101. ffrom Hugly and Ballasore . . . Orammalls.

 $\Gamma ol.$  158. ffrom Bengala . . . . Oromals.

Not in Yule. [? for rumal, a kerchief; or cloth for a kerchief.]

#### ORANKAY.

- Fol. 143. next to whom [the Sultan] are ye Leximana: Orongkays: and Shabandars.
- Fol. 146. y. Cape Merchant when he cometh Vp to towne visiteth y. Orang-kay.
- Fal. 161. y? great Orongkay is Lord Chiefe Justice, there are other Oronkays &c:

  n' der this . . . . . . the great Oronkay or Some of y? Others doe come into y?

  Pallace and declare theire businesse . . . . . who applyeth himselfe to y? Great

  Orongkay.
- $F_{ol}$ . 162. he must goe and pay his respects to  $y^e$  Orongkay and  $w_i^e$  noe Small reverence. test Observinge to pull off his Shoos (although never see cleane) and leave them att  $y_i^e$  doore or in  $y^e$  Court Yard . . . . . Here must he waite an hour or two before  $y_i^e$  Orongkay will appeare . . . . . Here  $y_i^e$  Orongkay must be presented with one piece of Baftos to  $y^e$  Value of 2 tailes.
- Fol. 165. they Straight ways gine  $y_{\cdot}^{e}$  Orongkay Notice of it . . . . . . but for what is ginen to the Orongkay there is little lost by it . . . . and the Orongkay &c: Officers accompany us . . . . taketh leave of  $y^{e}$  Orongkay, beinge the chiefe man concerned in all  $y^{e}$  Affaires of Shipps and Commerce.
- Fol. 173. carried him (and his purchase) before  $y_i^e$  great Orongkay . . . and in  $y^e$  presence of  $y^e$  Orongkay.

See Yule, s. v. Orankay. [A personage, noble, high official among the Malays.]

#### ORISSA.

- Fol. 3. The Kingdom of Orixa.
- Fol. 59. Orixa: This Kingdome is of noe great Extent, but is an indifferent pleasant Countrey.

See Yule, s. r. Orissa. [He gives very few quotations and never the direct Portuguese form above.]

#### PADRE.

Fol. 29. ye Portugal Patrees whose dependance is meerly upon tellinge faire tailes.

See Yule. s. v. Padre, a Christian priest.

[N. and E. p. 13, for March 19th, 1680, has "would now be buryed by the French Padrys." And N. and E. p. 37, for 28th Oct., shows that the still existing difference between international courtesies as understood by the English and Continental nations is an old story:—"It is observed that, whereas at the Dedication of a New Church by the French Padrys and Portugey in 1675 guns had been fired from the Fort in honour thereof, neither Padry nor Portugey appeared at the Dedication of our church nor so much as gave the Governor a visit afterwards to give him joy of it."]

# GLIMPSES OF SINGHALESE SOCIAL LIFE.

BY ARTHUR A. PERERA.

(Continued from p. 147.)

### (9) Amusements and Pleasures.27

During the New Year and other festive days strolling players (men and women) amuse themselves at open places in the village: they skilfully twirl metal-plates (neti) or small tambourines (raban) on their fingers or pointed stakes; they keep time to a merry dance by striking together sticks (likeliya), by tossing pitchers up in the air and catching them (kalagedi netima), or by thudding their arms against the sides (dingi gahanavā); and they enlogize the hamlet and its people in extempore verses (viridu kiyanavā) with the meaningless refrain, "Tana tanamda tānēnā, tanā, tamā tānenā, tanā tanamda, tanā tanamda, tānēnā."

The people also enjoy themselves on the merry-go-round (katuru onchillava) — a large revolving wheel on a tall wooden superstructure with seats attached; at theatrical representations called kôlan netum, rûkada netum, and nâdagam; and at divers forms of out-door games.

Kôlan netuma is a series of dances of a ludicrous character by actors dressed like animals and demons, wearing masks and sometimes perched on high stilts; and the  $r\hat{u}kada$  netuma is a marionette show of village life.

The núdagama is the drama, and for its performance a circular stage is erected with an umbrella-shaped tent over it (karalia); booths are erected all round for the audience, who though admitted free, willingly contribute something into the collection-box brought by the clown (kônangiya) at the end of the play. Before the drama begins, each of the actors, in tinselled costume, walks round the stage singing a song appropriate to his character, and the subject usually represented is either the landing of Vijaya, the Conqueror of Ceylon, or the tragic and insane deeds which led to the deposition of the last of the Royal line.

Buhukeliya (playing at ball, a kind of stump cricket) is a popular out-door game; the youngsters take sides, choose their captains, and each party places at a distance of 20 or 30 yards a piece of stick on two coccanut-shells; a member of one team bowls an unripe citrus decumana (jambolaya) to knock down the opposite wicket and the opponents try to catch the ball, above the knee-cap, as it comes past the wicket: if the bowler knocks the wicket over, one of the other side has to retire, while the bowler himself goes out if the ball is caught; this goes on alternately till one or other of the teams is all dismissed, and the victory is celebrated with a pleasant mixture of raillery and wit.

For the game of mutte (rounders) a post is erected as a goal, and one of the players stands by it and has a preliminary conversation with the others:—

- Q. Kikkiyô.
- A. Muddarê.
- Q. Dehikatuvada batukatuvada Is it a lime-thorn or a brinjal-thorn?
- A. Batukatuva Brinjal-thorn.
- Q. Man endada umba endada Should I come or would you come?
- A. Umbamavaren You yourself had better come.

As soon as the last word is uttered, he gives chase, and they dodge him and try to-reach the post without being caught; the one who first gets out succeeds the pursuer.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> For other out-door and in-door games not described in this article, vide Ceylon Asiatic Society's Journal, Vol. V. No. 18 (1878), p. 17.

Hålmelé is somewhat different; there is no saving post, and the area that the players have to run about is circumscribed; the pursuer hops on one leg and is relieved by the person that first leaves the circle or is first touched. Before starting he cries out—Hålmelé. A.— Kanakabaré. Q.— Enda hondé? (May I come?). A.— Bohoma hondayi (All right).

In havan paninava (the hare's jump) the players hold their hands together forming a line, and one of them (havan or hare) comes running from a distance and tries to break through it.

To play mahasop paninava (Mahason's leap)) a figure in the shape of H is drawn; a player guards each line and the others have to jump across them and return without being touched; it is optional to leap over the middle line and is only attempted by the best players, as the demon Mahason (Mahésasura) himself is supposed to guard it.

The children, in addition to their tops (bombara), bamboo pop-guns (bata tuvakku), cutwater (rômpetta), bows dunu), and water-squirts (watura vedilla), have their own nursery hide and seek (hengin muttan) they sit in a circle and play at less games; when wearied, tiring amusements. They hold the backs of each other's palms with their thumb and forefinger, move them up and down singing "kaputu kák kák kák, goraka dên dên dên, amutu váv váv, dorakada gahé puvak puvak, batapanduré bulat bulat, usi kaputá usi," and let go each other's hold at the end of the jingle, which probably means that "crows swinging on a gamboge-tree (goraka) take to their wings when chased away (usi, usi), and there are nuts in the areca-tree by the house and betel-creepers in the bamboo-grove." Or they close their fists and keep them one over the other, pretending to form a cocoanut-tree; the eldest takes hold of each hand in turn, asks its owner, "Achchiyê achchiyê honda pol gediyak tiyanava kadannada?" (grandmother, grandmother, there is a good cocoanut, shall I pluck it?); and, when answered "Oh, certainly" (bohoma hondayi), brings it down. A sham performance of husking the nuts, breaking them, throwing out the water, scraping the pulp and cooking some eatable follows this. Or they twist the fingers of the left-hand, clasp them with the right, leaving only the finger-tips visible and get each other to pick out the middle finger (meda engilla).

Or they keep their hands one over the other, the palm downwards, and the leader strokes each hand saying, "Aturu muturu, demita muturu Rdjakapuru hetiiya aluta gend manamali hali atak gerala, hiyala gejat bedala pahala gejat bedala, us us daramiti peliyayi, miti miti daramiti peliyayi, kukala kapala dora pile, kikili kapala veta mulle, sangan palla" (Aturu muturu demita muturu; the new bride that the merchant, Râjakapuru, brought, having taken a handful of rice, cleansed it and divided it to the upper and lower house; a row of tall faggots; a row of short faggots; the cock that is killed is on the threshold; the hen that is killed is near the fence; sangan palla); one hand is next kept on the owner's forehead and the other at the stomach and the following dialogue ensues:—

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Q. — Nalalé monaváda — What is on the forehead?
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A. - Lê - Blood.

Q. — Elwaturen héduváda — Did you wash it in cold water?

A. - Ov - Yes.

Q. — Giyâda — Did it come off?

A. - Né - No.

Q. — Kiren héduváda — Did you wash it in milk?

A. - Ov - Yes.

Q. — Giyada — Did it come off?

A. - Ov - Yes.

(The hand on the forehead is now taken down)

- Q. Badê inne mokada What is at your stomach?
- $A. Lamay \mathscr{A} A$  child.
- Q. Eyi andannê Why is it crying?
- A. Kiri batuyi netuva For want of milk and rice.
- Q. Kô man dunna kiri batuyi Where is the milk and rice I gave?
- A. Ballayi belalî kêvû The dog and the cat ate it.
- Q. Kô ballayi belali Where is the dog and the cat?
- A. Lindê vetuna They fell into the well.
- $Q. K\hat{o} \ linda Where is the well?$
- A. Goda keruvd It was filled up.
- $Q = K \hat{o} \ goda Where is the spot?$
- A. Ândiyû pela kittevvû There ûndiyû plants were planted.
- Q. Kô ândiyâ pela Where are the ândiyâ plants?
- A. Dêvâ They were burnt.
- Q.  $K\hat{o}$  alu Where are the ashes?
- A. Tampalá vattata issá They were thrown into the tampalá (nothosæruva brochiata) garden.

Then the leader pinches the other's cheek and jerks his head backward and forward singing "Tampalâ kāpu hossa genen (give me the mouth that ate the tampalâ).

Or they solve in rivalry intricate riddles, e. g. -

Q. — Tan-tan-gánná tôra evápan, Tin-tin-gánná tôrá evápan, Maga-veli-pisinná tôra evápan, Degambada rajá tôrá evápan.

"Tell me who it is that makes a tun-tun sound, who it is that makes a tin-tin sound, who it is that scratches the sand in the road, and who it is that is king on both banks of a river:"

A. — Tan-tan-gânnâ gônâ nevêdê,
Tin-tin-gânnâ lênâ nevêdê,
Magaveli pisinnâ kukulâ nevêdê,
Degambada rajû kimbulâ nevêdê.

"Is it not the elk that makes a tan-tan sound; the squirrel a tin-tin sound; the cock that scratches the sand in the road, and the crocodile that is king on both banks of the river."

The Singhalese are musical and always inclined for a song. Their popular music is now confined to the rabūna played by ear, and to the violin and its accompaniment the hand tambourine, which have replaced the stringed vinūva formed of a polished cocoanut-shell, a guana skin, and a long handle, and the udakkea, an hour-glass-shaped drum covered with deer-skin. The ancient war music is at present used for temple processions, and the instruments consist of the davula, a cylindrical drum beaten only on one side with a stick; the beraya, a longer drum beaten with the hands; the tammattama, a kettle-drum beaten with two sticks curved at the end; the taliya or cymbals, the horanéva; a clarionet with seven holes, resembling the bagpipe in tone, and the hakgediya, a conch-shell trumpet.

As regards songs, the farmer labouring on the field or watching his crop at night, the driver as he goes with his heavy-laden cart, the idle cow-boy at even, the toddy-drawer engaged in his morning occupation, the boat-man busy at his oars in the moonlight—all sing some primitive versicle to lighten their labour, e. g.—

- "Pun sanda sêma pûyûlû rata meddê, Ran kendi sêma pîrûlû pıta meddê, Mûra senaga vata karagana yama yuddê, Levkê metindu ada taniyama vela meddê."
- "Like full-orb'd moon his glory shone, its radiance filled the world, His loosen'd hair-knot falling free, in smoothest threads of gold; Mâra's host beset him—no thought was there to yield; To-day Lord Levkê's body still holds the lonely field."28

(To be continued.)

# A COMPLETE VERBAL CROSS-INDEX TO YULE'S HOBSON-JOBSON OR GLOSSARY OF ANGLO-INDIAN WORDS.

#### BY CHARLES PARTRIDGE, M.A.

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Ginnie cocke; ann. 1627: s. v. Turkey, 720, ii. Ginnie Henne; ann. 1627: s. v. Turkey, 720, i. Gins: s. v. Cash, 129, i. Ginseng: s. v. 288, i and ii. Gintarchan; ann. 1340: s. v. Mogul, 436, ii. Gioghi: ann. 1624: s. v. Jogee, 352, ii. Gipsv: s. r. Zingarı, 749, ii. Gir: ann. 1000: s. v. Pahlavi, 836, i. trirafa : s. v. Giraffe, 288, ii. Girafe: s. v. Giraffe. 288, ii. (firaffa; s. v. Giraffe, 288, ii, twice; ann. 1384 and 1471 (both twice): s. v. Giraffe, 289, ii. Giraffe; s. v. 288, ii. twice; ann. 940: s. v. 289, i, 3 times; ann. 1271 and 1298: s.v. Girandam, ann. 1727: s. v. Grunthum, 304, i. Girandams; ann. 1727. s. v. Grunthum, 304, i. Guardinia heterophylla; s.v. Grass-cloth, 301, i. trirasol: ann. 1644: s. v. Corge, 197, ii. Girgaum : s. v. Oart, 484, i.

Girgelim: s. v. Gingeli, 285, ii. Giria: s. v. 289, ii, 801, ii. Gir jā; ann. 1885; s. v. Girja, 801, ii. Gir jā ghar; ann. 1885; s. v. Girja, 801. 11. twice. Girnaffa: ann. 1471: s. v. Giraffe, 289, ii. Girnār: s. v. Kling, 372, i, s. v. Satrap, 602, ii. s. v. Sūrath. 665, ii. Girofles: s. v. Clove, 171, ii. Girshâh: ann. 1000: s. v. Pahlavi, 836, i. Gito; ann. 1585: s. v. Tical, 699. ii. Ginggiolino: s. v. Gingeli, 285, it. Giugno: ann. 1583: s. v. Winter, 740, ii. Glab; ann. 1810: s. v. Grab, 300. ii. Glan; s. v. Elephant, 797, i. Glans Unguentaria; ann. 1610: s. v. Myrobalan. 466, ii. Glob; ann. 1727: s. v. Dubber, 253. n. Glycine Soja: s. v. Soy, 651, i. Gno: s. v. Zend, 868, u.

(To be continued.)

### NOTES AND QUERIES.

#### LADAKHI STONE-IMPLEMENTS.

To my article on 'A Collection of Stoneimplements from Ladakh,' ante, Vol. XXXII, p. 389 ff, I wish to add the following:—

- 1. I have since received two sharp-edged stone-axes of a different shape from those illustrated on Plate I.. Fig. 2, Nos. 8 and 9. The shape of the new kind is triangular, thus: The material is a hard kind of slate.
- 2 A short time ago, Dr. F E Shawe, of the British Charitable Hospital at Leh, discovered a new type of stone-implement in one of the houses there, which is still in use, so the owner said. This kalam-like implement is used for stamping down the clay between a mould made of boards in use for the erection of rough mud-walls
- 3. In my paper there is no mention of the use of stone-hammers in Ladakh, because, though iron-hammers have hardly been introduced as yet, the Ladakhis have not yet attempted to make real stone-hammers. Ordinary stones are used instead But Thar-rnyed Chos-'aphel, a native of Trashi-luupo (now a Christian evangelist), unforms me that stone-hammers with a wooden handle are largely in use at his native place.

A. H. FRANCKE.

#### HOBSON-JOBSON

HERE is a valuable quotation for this Anglo-Indianism

1632. There are certain Customs or Ceremonies used here (Agra) as also in other parts of India viz Shawsen, Hooly, Dewally. Shawsen by the Moores in memory of one Shawsen a great Warrior slain by the Hindooes at the first conquering this country. So that they do not only solemnize his funerals, by making representative Tombs in every place, but as it were promise to revenge his Death, with their drawn Swords. their hair about their Ears, leaping and dancing in a frantic manner with postures of fighting. always crying Shawsen, Shawsen: Others answering the same words with the like gestures. it is dangerous then for Hindooes to stir abroad; this they do 9 or 10 Days; and then he is as it were carried to burial.-Relation Of Agra what notable there, and thereabouts. 1632. MS Travels of Peter Munday Extracted from the copy at the India Office Library.

R. C. TEMPLE.

18th April 1904.

# THE MOST SOUTHERN HOARD OF BACTRIAN COINS IN INDIA.

BY VINCENT A. SMITH, M.A., I.C.S. (Retd.).

A LTHOUGH it is rather late in the day to describe a discovery made more than twenty-five years ago, yet, inasmuch as no detailed account of it has ever been published, a description of the contents of a small hoard of Bactrian coins unearthed in Bundelkhand in 1877, and brought to notice by the local officials in 1878, may still be of interest.

A Chamār labourer, while digging for dhāk roots in a gram-field belonging to Rāmratan Singh, nephew of the lambardār, or headman, of the village of Pachkhura Buzurg in Pargana Sumērpur of the Hamīrpur District, to the south of the Jamnā, disclosed a pot full of silver coins at a short depth below the surface. The vessel was probably an earthen pitcher, but, according to some accounts, it was of brass. The coins recovered in 1878, through the agency of the police, were as follows:—

#### Eukratides.

Circular, hemidrachmæ, bilingual --

- Obv. Bust of king, helmeted, to r. BADIAEQD METAAOY EYKPATIAOY.
- Rev. The Dioskouroi, standing to front with lances. Kharōshṭhī legend, which I read at the time as rajasa maharajasa Eukratidasa, but is given by Von Sallet (Nachfolger, p. 99) as maharajasa mahatakasa evukrātidasa.

Three specimens only were found, of which two had an incomplete border line outside the legend on obv., and mon. The third had no border line, and a different mon. (Gardner, B. M. Catal. Supplement, p. 165, pl. xxx., 9). Prof. Gardner notes that "on a coin of this class in Gen. Court's collection, the inscription begins rajasa (Von Sallet in Zeit. f. Num. 10, p. 157)." I presume, therefore, that I read the legend correctly. I did not obtain a specimen of this rare type.

#### Apollodotos Soter.

- I. Hemidrachmæ, circular. 4 specimens
  - Obv. Elephant to r. ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΑΠΟΛΛΟΔΟΤΟΥ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΣ.
  - Rev. Indian bull to r. Kharōshṭhī legend, Mahārajasa Apaladatasa tratarasa. (Gardner, p. 34, pl. ix., 8.)
- II. Hemidrachmæ, square. 29½ specimens. Devices and legends as on the circular coins. Five specimens had no mon.; the others had various mon.; as in Gardner, p. 34, pl. ix., 9. I obtained a specimen of the circular variety, which is now in the cabinet of the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris.

#### Menander.

- I. Hemidrachmæ, circular
  - Var. 1. Obv. Bust of king, helmeted, to r. 5 specimens. ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΣ ΜΕΝΑΝΔΡΟΥ.
    - Rev. Pallas, standing l., with ægis in r., and thunderbolt in l. hand uplifted.

      Kharoshṭhī legend, Maharajasa tratarasa Minadrasa. Mon., as in

      Gardner, No. 10, p. 44.
  - Var. 2. As above, but king bare-headed. 14 specimens. I obtained an example.
  - Var. 3. As var. 2, but king to r. 12 specimens.

#### II. - Didrachmæ, circular -

Var. 1. Obr. - Bust of king, helmeted. 1 specimen.

Tur. 2. Obr. - Bust of king, bare-headed. 8 specimens.

Legends and reverse device as on hemidrachmæ. (Gardner, p. 44.) These didrachmæ are very rare. I secured a specimen of the bare-headed variety, which is now, with all the choice coins of my small collection, in Paris.

#### Antimachos Nikephoros.

Hemidrachmæ, circular. 20½ specimens —

Obv. - Nikē to l.; holds palm and wreath. ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΟΥ ΑΝΤΙΜΑΧΟΥ.

Rer. — King, helmeted, on horseback, to r. Kharoshthi legend, Mahārajasa jayadharasa Anitimākhasa. (Gardner, p. 55, pl. xii., 3.)

#### Summary.

1.	Eukratides	***		• •		• • •	•••	•••	•••	3
	Apollodotos			••	•••	•••	•••	•••	••.	$33\frac{1}{2}$ (34)
3.	Menandei	•••	•••	• •	••		•••	•••	•••	40
4.	Antimachos	$N_1$ kephoros	•••	•••	•••		•••		•••	$20\frac{1}{2}$ (21)
								Total		0.6
7.	Antimacnos	Trike phoros	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	Total		

It is, of course, possible that the number of coins found may have been larger than the number recovered. The hoard was divided, under orders of Government, among the cabinets of various public institutions and private collectors.

Eukratides was undoubtedly the earliest of the four kings whose coins are represented, and, in my opinion, the date of his accession may be assumed as B. C. 175. He reigned about twenty years, when he was murdered by one of his sons, while returning from a successful struggle with Demetrios, "king of the Indians." I agree with the view ably supported by Cunningham (Num. Chron. 1869, pp. 241—243) that Apollodotos was the parricide, and further agree with him in regarding Apollodotos Soter and Apollodotos Philopator as one person. The British Museum Catalogue distinguishes them as two separate kings, although many of the coin legends include both titles. The murder of Eukratides, and the accession of Apollodotos to independent power in the Indian borderland, may be dated in B. C. 156.

Menander was king of Kābul. His invasion of India may be dated with a near approach to accuracy in the years B. C. 155—153, during the reign of Pushyamitra, Sunga.

The position of Antimachos Nikephoros is uncertain, and there is nothing definite to show whether he lived earlier or later than Menander.

Sufficiently good evidence warrants the belief that in the course of his invasion Menander besieged both Madhyamikā (now Nāgarī) in Rājputāna and Sāketa in Southern Oudh, and that he threatened Pāṭaliputra.¹ If Antimachos Nikephoros was earlier in date than Menander, it is possible that the Pachkhura hoard may have been brought into the interior by some member of Menander's army. Bactrian coins have never been discovered to the south of the Jamṇā on any other occasion. The coins of all the four kings were in good condition, and many of the specimens were fine,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The authorities for the invasion of Menander will be discussed in my forthcoming work, The Early History of India, which will be published by the Clarendon Press in October.

#### TATTOOING IN CENTRAL INDIA.

BY CAPTAIN C. E LUARD, M.A., Superintendent of Ethnography in Central India.

#### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

I am afraid that the information I am at present able to give on this subject is somewhat sketchy, but I hope to be able to communicate further details when the work of the Ethnographic Survey is taken up in the States of this Agency. I have decided, however, to publish such notes as I have collected, in the hope that they may be of use for comparative purposes. Before actually turning to the subject-matter, I would remark that we can roughly divide Central India into three groups:—

- I. The Bundelkhand, or Eastern Section. Tattooing is restricted to females, and the breast and abdomen are not tattooed.
- II. The Mālavā, or Western Section. Tattooing is less restricted to females, and the breast is almost invariably adorned, the abdomen only occasionally.
- III. The Wild-tribe Section. In this group men are often tattooed, though with fewer devices than the women, the breast, abdomen, thighs and even back being adorned.

Origin of the Custom. — There is, so far as I am aware, no mention of the custom of tattooing in the Sastras, and there are no definite legends as to its origin, though it is said generally to be an invention of the "Dvapar (Third) Age." I am inclined to think that it is here primarily nothing more than a form of decoration, and is used to increase the attractiveness of the female in the eyes of the other sex, a common use for it among savage tribes in all parts of the world. A few instances of its use for talismanic purposes have come to light, but they seem to me to be modern inventions. One thing is certain, and that is that the wearers of these devices only look upon them as ornamental and decorative devices, with no deeper significance. The only legend I have gathered is a modern one, which states that Krishna once disguised himself as a Natni in order to tattoo Rādhā. In this connection there is a verse advocating the tattooing of Krishna's names on the body: —

- 1. दे लिखवाहन में बजचंद्र गील क्योल कुंजबिहारी ||
- 2. त्यों पदमाकर याही हीये हरि गोंसे गोबिंद गरे गिरधारी ॥
- अया बिधसे नखसे सिखलो लिख नाम अनंत भव भै प्यारीं ॥
- 4. इयामरेकी रंग गीद दे गात है गुदनानकी गीदनहारी H
- 1. Write on arms Brajchandra<sup>2</sup> (and) on round cheeks Kunjbihārī.<sup>3</sup>
- Padamākara<sup>4</sup> says, likewise inscribe (on) the bosom Hari<sup>5</sup> (and on other particular parts) Gobinda<sup>6</sup> (and on the neck) Girdhārī.<sup>7</sup>

See Chapter IX. in Westermarck's History of Human Marriage.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Lit., moon of Brajmandal (present Mathura district), or light of Braj, a name of Śri Krishna.

<sup>3</sup> Lit., one who disported in the groves.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;A poet who wrote much about the Central India people.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> A common name of Vishnu, and hence applicable to Śrī Krishna, who was an incarnation of Vishnu.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> A name of Śrī Krishna. This name was used by Indra in addressing him when apologising for his conduct in pouring the tremendous rain storm over Brajmandal. See Chapter XXVI. of Captain Holling's translation of Fromsagar.

Let., lifter of the mountains, from his lifting of the Govardhan hill on his little finger.

- 3. In this way from head to foot write<sup>8</sup> out, O dear one, the innumerable names known in the world.
- 4. Oh Tattooer! get my body tattooed (with) the dark blue colour of Srī Krishna.

Classes that Tattoo. — Tattooing is practically confined to Hindus and the jungle tribes; the lower classes of the former and all the latter decorating themselves profusely in this manner. The higher classes of Hindus are employing tattooing more and more sparingly I am told, and the designs are not only less numerous but also drawn on a smaller scale.

As regards the sexes, men are practically never tattooed in Bundelkhand, the Eastern Section; it is less uncommon in Mālavā; and quite common among the wild tribes. But even when men are tattooed, they are less profusely adorned with marks than women are. I am told that the Gahlōt Rājputs (of Bhōpāl) have a clan device, but I have been unable to verify this.

I have come across no instance of the use of tattooing to mark male puberty, nor have I been able to trace the least connection between this custom and religion, although it is supposed that women are better fitted to do acts of worship when they have certain marks upon them. The habit is certainly not declining, and new marks are still devised, as, for instance, the "Engine" used by Railway employés.

Methods of Tattooing. — (a) General. — Tattooing amongst Hindus is done by the females of the wandering tribes, such as Nats, Dhēds, Kanjars, Banjāras, &c., who make regular cold weather tours. In Bundelkhand Basors and Bhangis are tattooed by Parkis, a degraded caste who can feed with them. Although tattooing is usually done by these tribes, others are by no means prohibited from doing it, but as a rule the skill is lacking.

Among the jungle tribes it is done by any old woman of the tribe. In no case is tattooing ever done by men. These professional tattooers on entering a village have a regular cry — "Ohē! Ohē! a lovely scorpion, or beautiful peacock, for a pice, Ohē"! The women-folk at once gather round and trade begins.

(6) Process. — The instrument used is a bundle of four (or six) needles tied together in the middle, or made into a kind of comb. The jungle tribes often use Bābūl (Acacia arabica) thorns instead. The operator, on arrival, shews all her designs, drawing them in lamp-black on the part of the body where they will be stamped. When a design is approved of, it is at once executed. I may mention that it is usual for a young girl to have one device copied from among those her mother wears, but there is no rule whatever as to this, nor does any special significance attach to such a copy. The design selected, the operator seats herself before the patient and draws the device in lamp-black in the proper place. She then seizes the skin under the design with the left hand and stretches it, and, while doing so, strikes the needles sharply along the lines of the device, dipping them in the pigment each time, and then rubbing more pigment in with her hand.

In Bundelkhand, when the design is finished, the operator, in order to avert the evil-eye, takes a handful of flour (gram) mixed with salt and casts it into the fire. In these parts it is also considered a good thing that the patient should make her blood circulate briskly; it is said to "settle" the design. Poor women are set to grind for half an hour or so, while the rich carry pots of water about. Dieting is not common. I have noted its use in a few individual cases.

- (c) Pigments. Various pigments are used, but it may be remarked that only two colours are employed in Central India, blue-black and green; the latter is commonest in Mālavā. The dark-black seen in the United Provinces is not met with in Central India.
  - (1) Dharba (Poa cynosuroides) grass juice and turmeric; gives a dark-green colour.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Lit., from nails to hair on the head.

- (2) The bark of the Biyan tree (?) soaked in the water from a hukka and mixed with turmeric and lamp-black; gives a green colour.
- (3) Bark of the Sīsam (Dalbergia sisoo) tree soaked in water with turmeric; gives a green colour.
- (4) Cow's milk mixed with the juice of the Karīla plant (Capparis aphylla); this is used only by Mālavī Mhārs.
- (5) The juice of Nim-tree (Melia azadirachta) leaves mixed with lamp-black; gives a green colour.
- (6) In Bundelkhand a "blue-black" is produced by mixing lamp-black with the bark solution of the Biyan tree.
  - (7) The juice of Māhuā (Bassia latifolia) and lamp-black; gives a green colour.
  - (8) Juice of the Karīla mixed with that of Balur 9 (?); gives a green colour.

Age of Tattooing. — The process of tattooing commences at about five or six years of age, the designs being added to gradually. In Bundelkhand unmarried girls are as a rule only tattooed on the hands, other parts being done after marriage. Tattooing thus becomes a sign of marriage, but not of puberty. The Sarwariyā Brahmans, however, tattoo their married girls only. Widows are only tattooed in the lower classes where widow remarriage is allowed, and then only on re-marriage.

Tattoo marks and their meanings. — On this point the reader must refer to the attached diagrams. Generally it is the parts exposed to view that are dealt with, the practice within certain limits varying in the three groups into which I have divided Central India. I have come across no special devices.

We may arrange the parts adorned thus: — Decorated by all three groups—(1) Forehead, between the eyes. (2) Arms — upper; fore. (3) Hands — back; palms, rare; fingers; wrists. (4) Feet and ankles. (6) Calves. (7) Neck.

#### In the Mālavā group add, --

(a) Breast, usual. (b) Abdomen, rare.

#### In the jungle-tribe group add, --

(a) Breast. (b) Abdomen, usual. (c) Thighs. (d) Back, rare.

As to what the signs mean I have been able to discover little; all that the people could tell me was what the sign was intended to represent. I could nowhere discover that any deep meaning was supposed to be attached to the symbols; increase of attractiveness was, as I have already said, the principal reason assigned for undergoing the process. The designs, moreover, are the same practically among high and low, probably because the operators in each case are the same people, the only difference being that of quantity, which varies inversely with social position. Symmetry there is none, nor are marks hereditary, though a daughter as a rule adopts some one of the designs her mother has worn. As a rule, any part of the body may be done first, except in the case of unmarried girls in Bundelkhand, and a few others which will be found under the particular instances which I have given. The devices representing bracelets, necklaces, &c., are designed to give the wearer the wherewithal to appear in the next world; these jewels she is supposed to be able to take with her.

The following Dohā refers to this: -

Dohā. दोहा.

# चतुरनार घहनो घडो सुगड लियो अपने अंग ॥ उतारे से उतरे नहीं सो गयो जीवंके संग ॥

which may be translated as follows: --

"An intelligent woman executed (some) ornaments, which a decent one put on her person. (They are such) ornaments as cannot be put off, but which will accompany the soul (to the other world).

I know of no case of tattooing idols or cattle.

#### THE TATTOO MARKS.

I will now proceed to discuss a series of marks actually taken down off people. Many are repeated — indeed, the actual number of designs is not really large, but the variation in the forms is considerable, and I will therefore give the whole collection as it stands. It has not been everywhere possible to give an English equivalent,

I.

THE BUNDELKHAND OR EASTERN SECTION.

(Collected by Rai Saheb Kashi Prasad.)

No,	Designs or marks.	Names of designs. English names.	
1		मार्छ्ी Māchhī (? fish).	
2	384	पुरेनका फूल Purën kā phūl lotus-flower).	(the
8	•••	चलर्ना Chalnī (sieve).	
1	• •	जवा Javā (Hibiscus sinensis).	rosa.
5		धिनौर्ची Ghinochī (chatty-st	and).
6	TA	हिना Hinnā (deer).	,
-	<b>→</b> ←	मथानीका फूल Mathānī kā phūl (i given to the botto a churning rod).	nanie m of

No '	Designs or marks.	Names	of design	s.	English names.
8	<b>7</b> °	विछ्रु	<b></b> .	• •	Bıchhū (scorpion).
٤		चपटा		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Chapētā (impression of palm of hand).
10	기후 II	<b>पिडी</b> ···	<b></b>		Pīḍī (native stool).
11	黄	<b>नैंाग</b> …	•••	•••	Laung (clove).
12	X	चुरिया	•••	•••	Churiyā (an ornament).
13	THE WAY TO THE PARTY OF THE PAR	मोर		••	Mör (peacock).
14		पपीरा	•••	••	Pāpirā (a kind of musical pipe).
15	<b>⊕</b>	बतासा	•••	••	Batāsā (a kind of sweetmeat).
16	<del>¥</del> €	बहुवा		••	Baṭuvā (small bag).

No.	Designs or marks.	Names of <b>designs</b> .	English Names.
17	Z.	भूत्रमस्	Jhūmar (an ear-ring).
18		भइयाकी छांह	Bhaiyā kī chhānh (the brother's shadow— a protective mark).
19	ch that	हिन्ना-हिन्नी	Hinnā and Hinnī (buck and doe).
20	**	सषी	Sakhī (female com- panion).
21	***	ंपांच पंडुवा	Five Pānḍavās of the Mahābhārata.
22		रेल	Rēl (supposed to represent an engine: instance of modern type of mark).
23		सरमनकी कोंबर .	Sarman kī kānwar (two baskets tied by ropes suspended on each side of a straight bamboo; the one tattooed here is that in which Srāvan carried his parents).
24	<b>‡</b>	संब-भाजर	Sankh-jhālar (shell- cymbals).
25	11	सीत	Sīt (?).

No.	Designs or marks.	Names of	f designs		English Names.
26	<u>አ አ</u> አ	सीताकी र	सुइया	•••	Sītā kī rasūivā. (Evidently Sītā cooking-place.)
27	<b>ፉ</b>	चरन	•••	•••	Charan (feet).
28		मुक्तट	400	•••	Mukaț (crown or crest of Krishņa).
29	30/2	भासीकी	नकल	••	Plan of Jhānsī Fort.
30	*	चकई-चर्	कुवा	•••	Chakai-Chakwā, Brahminy ducks (Cascara rutila).
31	The state of the s	ग्रोरछ। व	का गुंडा	•••	Orchhā kā Gundā (the beau (fop) of Orchhā).
32	The street	कागला	•••	•••	Kāglā (crows).
33	a the	क्रनहियाः	ज्ञू	***	Kanhaiyājū ('Srī- Krishņa).
34	*	गोपी	•••	•••	Gopī (female cowherd).
35	*	गुवा़ल	• • • •		Guvāla (male cowherd).
36	7636	हाथी…	•••		- 11 (elep <b>hant).</b>

No	Designs or marks.	Names of designs.	English names.
37	<i>*</i>	रामलक्षमनकी जोड़ी	Rāma and Lakshmaņ together.
38	•	माथेपरकावृंदा-दुक्तजी	Būṇḍā (spangle on the forehead, or spot called ṭuklī — article of ornament).
39	•	वेसर नाकपर	Besar (spot on the nose).
40	***************************************	कुडीपरका दूंदा	Buṇḍā ơn chin.
41	•	गलचूमा	Galchūmā or Buṇḍā worn on the cheek.
42	*•• •¥•••¥•	धाईवूंदा क्रंपपर	Dhāibūṇḍā (worn on the ribs; only tattooed on women who have lost a child in child- birth, supposed to be due to a defect in her milk).
43		पुतरइंद्या ·· विजीरे ···	Putarainyā (dolls).  Vijaurē (ornament on forehead).
<del>4</del> 5	<b>→</b>	महावरका फूल	Mahāwar kā phūl. (Mahuā perhaps? It cannot be connected with lac.)
46	+	सातिया	Sātiyā (cross of mystic properties).
47	•	वृंदा धिंगरीपरका	Buṇḍā (worn on the fifth toe).
48	A TO	माई की भेंट	Māi kī bhēṇṭ (the present offered to the goddess?).

No.	Designs or marks.	Names	of <b>designs</b>	•	English names,
49	3xxi	सुवा	• • •	•••	Suvā (paroquet).
<b>5</b> 0	\$ \$ \$ \$ \$	सवार	•••	•••	Savār (horsemen).
òl	H	ककई	•••	•••	Kakaī (comb).
52	M	ककवा	***	•••	Kakvā (large comb).
53	#	मकरी	••	e	Makarī (spider).
54		चकौटी	•••	••	Chakauțī (?).
55	• • •	वरा	<del>1</del> 46	•••	Varā (an article of orna- ment).
56		नाहर	***	•••	Nähar (tiger).

## Description of the positions of the marks.

Names of marks or designs.	Names of the parts of body where marks are made.		
No. 1, Māchhī	On the back of the finger of the left hand, above and below the second joints, and also on the back of the thumb.		
No. 2, Purēn kā phūl; No. 3, Chalnī; No. 4, Javā; No. 5, Ghinōchī; No. 6, Hinnā; and No. 8, Biehhū.	On the back of the palm of the left hand.		
No. 9, Chapētā	On the palm of the left hand.		

Names of marks or designs.	Names of the parts of body where marks are made.
No. 10. Pīrī; No. 11, Laung; No. 12, Churiyā No. 13, Mōr; No. 14, Papīrā; No. 15, Batāsā No. 16, Baṭuvā; No. 17, Jhūmar; No. 18, Bhaiyi kī Chhānh; No. 51, Kakaī; No. 52, Kakvā; and No. 53. Makarī.	arm of the left hand.
No. 55, Barā	on the front of the elbows of both arms — about an inch down towards the fore-arm.
No. 19, Hinnā, Hinnī; No. 20, Sakhī; No. 21 Pānch Paṇḍavās.	
No. 24, Sānkh-jhālar	On the back of the third finger of the right hand, below the first joint.
No. 25, Sīt	On the front of the wrist of the right hand. (Note. — Some are of opinion in connection with this "Sit," that a woman wearing it is able to touch her husband's elder brother's clothes, &c., which, as a rule, she cannot touch.)
No. 3, Chalnī; No. 4, Javā; No. 7, Mathānī kā phūl; No. 5, Ghinōchī.	
No. 26. Sītā kī rasūiyā; No. 27, Charan; No. 28 Mukāt; No. 15, Batāsā; No. 29, Jhānsī ki nakal; No. 30, Chakaī-Chakwā; No. 32, Kāglā No. 54, Chakautī.	arm of the right hand.
No. 33, Kanhīyājū; No. 34, Gōpī; No. 35, Guvāl; No. 36, Hathī; No. 37, Rām Lachhman kī jōrī.	
No. 38, Buṇḍā or Tuklī	Between the eye-brows on the forehead.
No. 39, Bēsar	Close to the kole of the nose-ring on the left side.
No. 41, Galehumā	At the centre of the right cheek.
No. 40, Buṇḍā	Just above the centre of the chin under the lower lip.
No. 42, Dhaibuṇḍā	On the side of the body over the middle of the lower ribs of the right side.
No. 43, Putarainyā	On the calves of both legs.
No. 13, Mor; No. 56, Nahar	Instead of No. 43 on the calves of both legs.
No. 45, Mahāwar kā phūl	Over the centre of the top of both feet.
No. 44, Vijaurē	Scattered around No. 45.
No. 46, Sātiyā	On the big or first toes of both feet.
No. 47, Bundā	On the fifth toe of both feet.
No. 12, Churiyā; No. 15, Batāsā; No. 16, Batuvā; No. 18, Bhaiyā kī Chhānh; No. 31, Orchhā kā Guṇṇā; No. 48, Māī kī bhēṇṭ; No. 49, Suvā.	Can be made on the middle of the front and back of the fore-arm of either arm (right or left) as desired by the person to be tattooed.
No. 23, Sarman kī kanwar; No. 22, Rel; No. 17.	
Jhumar; No. 12, Churiyā; No. 50, Savār.	Can be made on the middle of the outer and inner surfaces of either arm (right or left) as desired by the person to be tattooed.
- T	1 2000000000

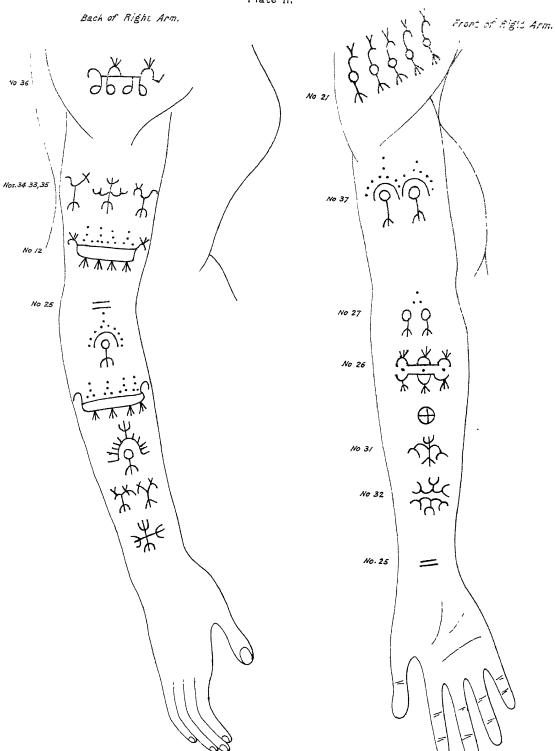
# WOMAN SHOWING TAT TOO MARKS (BUNDELKHAND).



B E.S. Press, Litho.

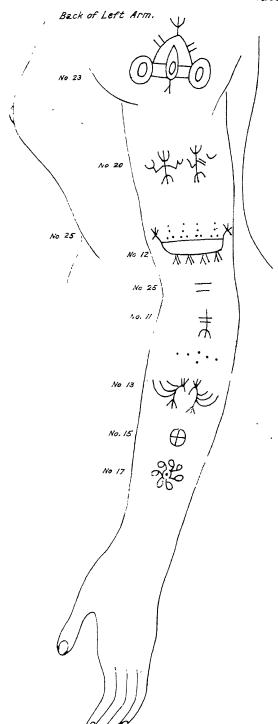
# (BUNDELKHAND.)

Plate II.

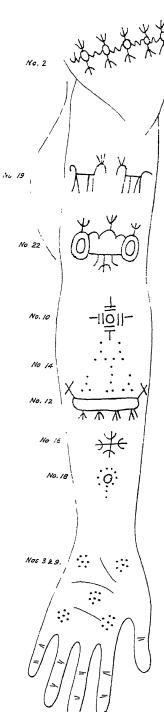


# (BUNDELKHAND,)

# Plate III.

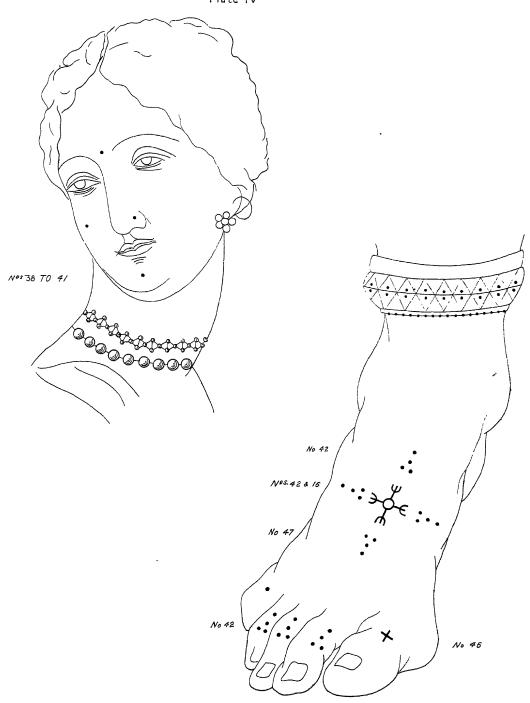


Front of Left Arm.



# (BUNDELKHAND)

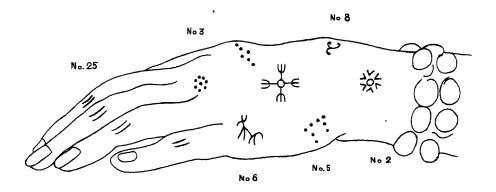
Plate IV



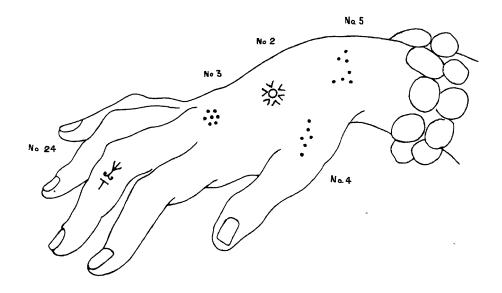
### (BUNDELKHAND.)

Plate V.

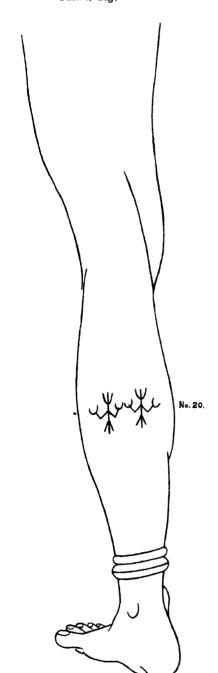
Left Hand.



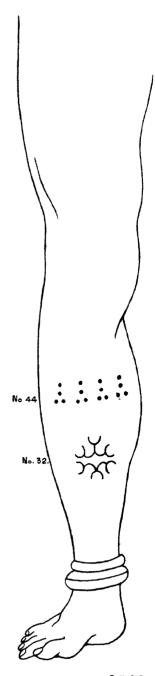
# Right Hand







Front of Leg



Rai Saheb Kashi Prasad, Del.

B E. S. Press, Litho

#### GLIMPSES OF SINGHALESE SOCIAL LIFE.

#### BY ARTHUR A. PERERA.

(Concluded from p. 210.)

#### (10) Folk-Tales and Legends.29

THE Island's folklore consists of nature myths, place-legends, and other traditions; riddles. proverbs, and versicles; and nursery tales which tell of speaking animals and of some village anecdote or rural character of the good old communal days.

### The Story of the Sky.

Once upon a time the sky was very close to the earth and the stars served as lamps to the people. A woman who was sweeping her compound was so much troubled by the clouds touching her that she gave them a blow with her the broom (idala), saying, get away, get away (pala. pala). The sky instantly flew away far out of the reach of man.

#### The Sun and Moon and their Eclipse.

A poor widow had three sons, who, one day, attended a wedding, leaving their mother at home; they returned late and she enquired what they had brought for her to eat. The eldest angrily replied that he had brought nothing, and the second threw at her the torch which had lighted them on the way. But the third asked for his mother's rice-pot (hattıya) and put into it ten grains of rice which he had brought concealed under his ten nails. The few grains miraculously filled the vessel, and the mother, in return, blessed him and cursed the other two, consequently the youngest became the pleasant and cool moon, the second the fierce burning sun, and the eldest the dragon-plant (Râhu) who tries to destroy his brothers by swallowing them and causing their eclipse.

### Origin of Earthquakes.

The goddess of the earth (Mihiket) supports the world on one of her thumbs, and, when weary, shifts it on to the other, causing an earthquake.

#### The Horse and the Ox.

In the olden times the horse had horns but no teeth in his upper jaw, while the ox had no horns but teeth in both its jaws. Each coveted the other's possession and effected an exchange; the ox has the horns now and the horse the two rows of teeth.

#### The Cheetah and the Cat.

The cheetah was taught by the cat to climb up a tree but not to come down. In revenge he always kills his master, but is grateful enough to keep the body on an elevation and worship it, instead of making a meal.

- - (6) ", ", VIII., No. 26 (1883), p. 1. (7) ", " XII., No. 42 (1891-92), p. 118.
  - (8) The Orientalist, ∇ol. I. (1884), pp. 233, 275.
    (9) ,, II. (1885), pp. 26, 53, 102, 147, 150, 174.
  - (10) ,, III. (1887), pp. 31, 78, 159.

- (3) Rajek ambu ganitnam dugiyek kûta pavasayi When the king takes the wife to whom is the poor man to complain.
  - (4) Kandata balla biruvata kanda mitiréda Though a dog barks at a hill will it grow less.
- (5) Kesbévi bittara siyagananak lá kisi sabdayak nokaratat kikili eka bittaré lá gam kîpêkata ehenta sabdakaranaválu Though the tortoise lays a hundred eggs and makes no noise, the hen crows over her one egg for several villages to hear.
  - (6) Atisaréta amuda gehuvávagey It is like wearing a crupper to cure dysentery.
- (7) Gaha uda miya dekald engili levakanavd-vagey It is like licking your finger on seeing a beehive on a tree.
- (8) Keté muvô kêvâta gedara tibuna góna hamata tadibévâ vagey It is like flogging the elk-skin at home to avenge on the deer who trespassed in the fields at night.
- (9) Angurak kiren sõdd sudu karanta berilu It is not possible to make a charcoal white by washing it in milk.
  - (10) Puhul hord karen deneyi Who steals ash-pumpkins will be known from his shoulder.

#### The Have and the Jackal.30

Once upon a time a hare and a jackal were sweeping a compound (midula) and they found two pumpkin-seeds (labueta); these they planted, but only one grew, as the jackal nourished his with his urine, while the hare did so with pure well-water. The hare agreed to kindly share the pumpkin with his friend, and the jackal proposed a ruse to obtain the other requisites for preparing their meal, viz., firewood, cocoanut, salt, rice, and earthen utensils. The hare laid himself on the high road as if dead, and when any pingo-bearer carrying what they wanted appeared, the jackal cried out, "keep the pingo down and kindly take away that dead hare." As the foolish peasant did as he was requested, the jackal carried away his pingo and the hare scampered away. After the meal was kept on the fire, the wily jackal asked the hare to procure for him some stalkless Macaranga tomentosa leaves (kenda kola) and stones with roots. The hare wandered far and wide to find them without success; he returned home late, tired, and asked for his share of the meal. He was directed to the rice-pot, but he only found there a few grains of rice. The insatiate jackal asked for half of that, too; and then ordered the hare to stroke his back. The hare noticed a cocoanut husk (polmuduva) acting as a stopper underneath his tail, and, at the jackal's request, pulled it out and was besmeared with his excretion. He ran to a neighbouring mead, rolled himself well on the grass and came back "as white as wool," determined to revenge himself on the jackal, who wanted to know how he was so clean. The hare told him that the dhobi washed him, and the jackal, for once foolish, ran to the riverside and requested the washerman to wash him. The dhobi took him by his hind-legs and thwacked him, till he died, on the washing-stone, saying, "This is the jackal who ate my fowls."

# The Story of Hokkâ.31

Once upon a time there was a Gamarâla who had contracted such an abhorrence to the expression "Aniccan dukkan" (this is a phrase in every-day use among the Singhalese; it means literally "sorrow is not eternal," and is used to express surprise or astonishment) that he formed a resolution to cut off the nose of any person, no matter who, that would dare utter it in his hearing. In

<sup>30</sup> This is the first tale told to a child, who is never tired of hearing it repeated.

<sup>31</sup> From the Orientalist, Vol. I. (1884), Part VI. p. 131. This is an entertaining specimen of a Ceylon folkstory. The range of Singhalese tales is not yet fully explored.

order to carry out this extraordinary resolve, he always had in his pouch a sharp knife, and, as soon as ever he heard the words in question fall from anybody's lips, he would rush madly upon him, seize him by the throat and cut his nose completely off. Many of his servants, and others, too, with whom he had to do, had their noses cut off, for no other fault than for uttering these words in his hearing. Some did so through ignorance of his resolution, others by not having a sufficient guard over the door of their lips.

The story goes on to say that, not far from the Gamarâla's village, there lived two brothers, the elder of whom was a dullard - obtuse and foolish - while the younger was sharp as a needle, and had all his wits about him. The elder brother set out one day in search of work, and, happening to come to the Gamarâla's house, was lucky enough to be taken into his service. He worked away hard as he could, and the Gamarâla was so pleased with him that he treated him more kindly than he ever did any of his other servants. One day, however, being astonished at some strange behaviour on the part of a fellow-servant, the man let the words "Aniccan dukkan" escape his lips in the hearing of the Gamarâla, who immediately rushed upon him with frantic rage, seized him by the throat, and mercilessly cut off his nose. No sooner was he out of the clutches of the eccentric Gamarâla than he made off as fast as he could, and reaching home, covered all over with blood, related to his brother the sad and strange adventure which had befallen him. Hokkâ (for that was the name of the younger brother) was sensibly affected by the recital of the story, and he made up his mind to pay off the Gamarâla in his own fashion. So he said to his brother, "Be not sad, my brother. at the misfortune that has overtaken you, as the fruit of your actions in a former birth. Stay at home till I go, in my turn, and earn some livelihood for us." So saying he consoled his brother. dressed his wound, and set out for the house of this very Gamarâla, who, after a few preliminary inquiries, took him readily into his service, telling him at the same time, that, if he conducted himself well and performed his duties satisfactorily, he might rely on being handsomely rewarded,

Hokkâ then reverently approached him, and said to him, "Will your honor be pleased to set apart some special work for me, so that I may give it my undivided attention." "Go then and look after my cattle" (chenan gohin mage harak bald piya) replied the Gamarâla. These words mean literally, "Go then and look at my cattle." Pretending to take the cattle for pasture, Hokkâ drove them to the wood, tied them to some trees in such a way that they could not graze, and, sitting down at a place from which he could have a sight of them, he kept on gazing at them all day long. This he did for several days, and during all the time the poor cattle had neither grass to eat nor water to drink.

It was customary with the Gamarâla to examine his cattle periodically. So one morning he ordered Hokkâ to bring them up for inspection. The famished beasts were loosened from the trees by Hokkâ, but not having strength to move, they fell down at the foot of the trees, and lay there more dead than alive. Thereupon Hokkâ hastened into the presence of the Gamarâla and said to him, "The cattle refuse to come or even to rise, so may it please your honor to accompany me to the wood." When the Gamarâla got there, he found, to his great horror, that the poor animals were about to expire. Turning round, his whole frame quivering with rage, he said to Hokkâ, "Did I not bid you to look after (literally look at) the cattle." "And does your honor mean to say that I did not look at them?" replied Hokkâ. "I was looking at them incessantly; meal-time and night alone excepted." The Gamarâla very naturally concluded that the man was dull as a beetle and took the words "look at" in their literal sense, and was thus the innocent cause of the destruction of his cattle. He therefore did not wish to turn him out, but retained him in his service, resolving, however, to be very precise, for the future, in the orders he would give him.

Some days after, the Gamarâla found that his large house (for he had two, one large and the other small) required to be thatched. So he said to Hokkâ, "Mahâgê, piduruvahapiya." The word

"mahage" means "the large house," and also "the old woman." Hence the order may mean, "cover the large house with straw," or "cover the old woman with straw."

This was sufficient for Hokkâ. As soon as the Gamarâla left home on his daily business, Hokkâ collected a large heap of straw near the house, and carrying thither the Gamarâla's mother, laid her prostrate on the ground and covered her with the whole heap, so that she was suffocated to death. "Now lie there comfortably, you old hag," said he, and went away to attend to his ordinary work. When the Gamarâla returned home in the evening, he found only a heap of straw near the house, and the house itself unthatched. So he said to Hokka, "How is it, you vagabond, that you have not obeyed my orders?" "Not obeyed your orders?" said Hokkâ, "why, what makes you think so? Come and see whether the old lady is not under the straw as snug as ever." So saying he removed the straw, when the Gamarâla to his great horror beheld the corpse of his poor mother. On this occasion, too, the Gamarâla forgave the man, for he attributed the mistake to his natural deficiency of intellect, and was, moreover, unwilling to part with so hardworking a servant.

Some time after this sad occurrence, the Gamarâla received the mournful intelligence of the death of his son-in-law, who was living in a village about a day's journey from the Gamarâla's house. So he made up his mind to pay his widowed daughter a visit of condolence, and ordered Hokkâ to hold himself ready for the journey. At dawn, the next morning, the Gamarâla and his man lefthome, after taking a hearty meal, and continued their march till noon, when, finding themselves weary and hungry, they sat down to rest under the shade of a large tree. Having nothing with them in the shape of food, the Gamarâla handed some money to Hokkâ, and bade him go and buy semething for them to eat. After going a great distance, Hokkâ found a bunch of ripe plantains exposed for sale in a hut, and bought sixteen plantains with the money. He then reflected thus: "If I take these sixteen plantains to my master he will assuredly give me half the number, contenting himselfwith the other half. I do not see, therefore, any reason why I should wait until he gives me my share. 1 may as well eat it here at once." So he ate up eight plantains and started afresh with the remainder to get to his master. After proceeding a short distance, he was sure that the Gamarâla would give him half of the eight remaining plantains, and he therefore ate four more of the number. After going a little further, he ate two more, and still a little further he swallowed one more, reasoning on each occasion as he had done before. There was only one plantain left for the Gamarâla, which Hokka, on his return, respectfully offered to him. "Is it only one single plantain," said the Gamarâla, "that you have been able to buy for so much money, you big ass" (literally, "you big bullock," ali gono). "No, your honor," answered Hokka. "I bought sixteen plantains with your money." "Where then are the other fifteen?" rejoined the Gamarâla. "I ate them" was the innocent reply. "How did you dare eat them, you dog?" (literally, "How did you eat them, you dog?)" said the famished Gamarâla. Upon this Hokkâ held the plantain in his left hand, peeled it with the right, and suiting the action to the words, he said, "This is the way I ate the plantains, your honor," and slipped the plantain down his throat.

The Gamarâla new suspected, and with good reason too, that the man was more a knave than a fool, although he looked very innocent, but suspended his judgment till further experience would enable him to get at the truth. He was very weary and hungry, and having no more money with him, was altogether in a sad plight. Resolving, therefore, to continue his journey, he went on and found himself towards evening within a few yards of his daughter's house. As customary with the Singhalese, he sent Hokkâ beforehand to inform his daughter of his arrival. On reaching the house Hokkâ said to her, "Your father is come to pay you a visit of condolence, and is already within a few yards of your house. He is under medical treatment, and the physician has desired him to eaf nothing else but seven-years-old kudu" (the dust of the paddy found between the husk and the seed). So saying Hokkâ returned to the place where he had left the Gamarâla, and, in the meantime, the

Gamarâla's daughter set about collecting kudu, as old as she could get from her neighbours, and prepared a kind of pulp with it. The Gamarâla was soon at his daughter's house. After the exchange of the customary salutations the kudu pulp was served up. The surprised Gamarâla could not guess at the cause of all this, for he had given no offence to his daughter to deserve such treatment at her hands. He felt exceedingly slighted and insulted, but concealing his feelings, he ate the pulp merely because he had nothing else to satisfy his hunger with, and resolved on quitting the house without a word to his daughter.

When the night wore on, the Gamarâla set out with Hokkâ to return home He trudged on as well as he could, and on the following evening he was within a few yards of his own house. Here he sat down on the stump of a tree, and sent Hokkâ forward to inform his wife of his return and of the miserable situation he was in. Hokkâ ran up to the house, and, rushing into the presence of his mistress, said to her, "Your husband is back almost exhausted with hunger and fatigue. To show your sympathy with him in his present unhappy condition, you had better put on sooty rags and meet him on the edanda (a small narrow bridge over a canal or stream, constructed with single logs) sitting on the middle of it, like a half-starved dog (belli)." He then returned to the Gamarâla and led him over the edanda, and coming up to the spot where the Gamarâla's wife was seated, kicked her down into the deep stream below saying, "Get away you filthy dog (belli), what business have you here?" Of course, the poor creature tumbled down into the canal and met with a watery grave. The Gamarâla knew nothing about it, as it was dark, but he went on (poor wretch) fully believing that what Hokkâ pushed out of the way was really a dog (belli).

Not finding his wife at home when he got there, he thought she had gone on a visit somewhere. He then ordered Hokkâ to prepare a tepid bath for him, but Hokkâ made the water as hot as possible, and, taking the Gamarâla to the bath, poured on him a pot of the boiling water, which so scalded him as to make him scream out pitifully. Being now fully convinced that Hokka was not the innocent greenhorn he had always taken him to be, the Gamarâla involuntarily gave vent to his surprise by exclaiming, "Aniccan dukkan mu mata karana êvâyê heti" (dear me, see what this fellow is doing to me). Scarcely were the words "Aniccan dukkan" out of the Gamarâla's mouth, when Hokkâ seized him by the throat in the same manner as he had heard he had seized his brother, and drawing out of his pouch a sharp knife with which he had provided himself before he left home to seek employment at the Gamarâla's, he cut the Gamarâla's nose clean off, so that not a vestige of it remained on his face. Without losing a single moment he ran as fast as his legs would carry him, with the Gamarâla's nose safe between his fingers, and got home quite out of breath. Finding his brother squatted at the hearth and warming himself, he gave him such a kick on the hind part of the head, as brought his face in contact with the lig-gala (hearth-stone) and made the wound in his face bleed. He then made his brother rise, and taking the Gamarâla's nose, he fixed it on the spot where his brother's own nose stood before, in such a way as to make it fit the place exactly. He then bandaged it, after applying to it the juice of a plant which has the power of healing cuts. In a short time the Gamarâla's nose became a part of his brother's face, and he was able to breathe through it freely and to perform with it all the functions of a nose just as he had done before the Gamarâla had chopped his nose off.

#### National Tradition.

In simple faith, from sire to son, are handed down two national traditions that a Lion and a lascivious Royal Princess were the progenitors of the Singhalese race (singha, lion, + la, blood); and that there will be born among the people a great emperor, Diya Sêna by name, who will free them from their bondage, extend his sway over the continent of India, and enable them to perform their ceremonies and festivals once again under the shadow of their own flag.

There is reason to believe that the Singhalese are a highly mixed race, and it may be stated as a working hypothesis that the several castes, except the predominating Govi or Grahapati caste, formed tribes of a pre-historic settlement in Ceylon, intermarrying with an earlier people the autochthonic Veddahs; that they were displaced by the Govi race, the Singhalese proper, who, while imposing on them the Aryan language and Buddhism, adopted and developed the existing animistic ideas and the rude social organization. Of course, their blood freely intermingled, though not by regular marriages, and, at a later date, the frequent intercourse with the South Indian kingdoms led to the incorporation of Dravidian captives and emigrants with the thinly populated castes and to a further development in their beliefs and practices.

# CORRESPONDENCE.

#### NAVAGRAHA.

Sie, — In connexion with Mr. Burgess' Article on the Navagraha, ante, p. 61 ff., I wish to invite attention to the Singhalese representations of the heavenly bodies and their presiding divinities in Upham's History and Doctrine of Buddhism, published with coloured plates in 1828. The

Sun rides on a horse, Mercury on an ox, Mars on a peacock, Râhu on an ass, Saturn on a crow, Venus on a buffalo, Kêtu on a swan, Jupiter on a lion, and the Moon on an elephant.

ARTHUR A. PERERA.

Flower Road, Colombo, 17th May 1904.

### NOTES AND QUERIES.

#### HOBSON-JOBSON.

IGNOBANCE in English writers of common Indian things takes a lot of killing; witness the latest literary contribution to Hobson-Jobson. It is from the *Daily Mail* of Saturday, April 2, 1904, and contains about the usual number of complete errors made whenever that annual feast is discussed in the Press.

## Hobson-Jobson, Hindoo Religious Festival.

During the past few days the Hindoo workers on the various vessels in the London docks have been celebrating their annual religious festival, commonly known in Western countries as Hobson-Jobson.

The last four days of March are always set apart (!) by the Hindoos (!) for the observance of one of their principal religious rites. This year, however, there were not many vessels in the Royal Albert and Victoria Docks (London), and consequently the celebration was shorn of some of its pomp and ceremony.

To the uninitiated the outward "show" appears a ridiculous farce, but apparently the Hindoo regards it as a most solemn festival. It would be almost impossible to describe the dresses and adornments of the principal characters taking part in the ceremony.

The procession was preceded by a crude representation of a horse. To make up this a Hindoo

was encased in a wooden skeleton of a horse with a movable head, which was held under control by reins.

No little consternation was caused among the crowd assembled to witness the celebration when this strange creature charged into them. Following the horse were several gaudily dressed Hindoos, bearing aloft strange devices. Behind these came several tom-tom players, and musicians discoursing on whistles, accordions, and cornets. Following these were dancers, persons who appeared to be engaged in a scuffling match. Some were padded abnormally; whilst others were made up to represent bears and dogs.

Then came the "well-conducted" Hindoos, walking in a steady manner, reciting various prayers and exhortations. Even these had gone to the trouble to decorate themselves for the occasion with ear and nose rings. Last of all came the temple, which was carried on the shoulders of four stalwart Hindoos. It resembled a large doll's house, and was decorated with gaudy ribbons.

This procession has marched several times round both the Albert and Victoria Docks, a distance of several miles, and at the close of the festival the temple was burned, the Hindoos present making a great display as the last vestiges of the construction were destroyed.

R. C. TEMPLE.

4th April 1904.

# TATTOOING IN CENTRAL INDIA.

BY CAPTAIN C. E. LUARD, M.A., Superintendent of Ethnography in Central India.

(Continued from p. 228.)

II.

# THE MALAVA OR WESTERN SECTION.

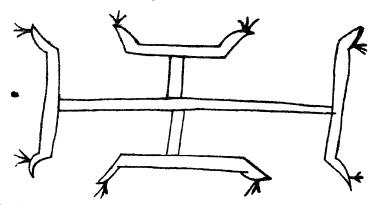
1. Tattooing among Mochis in Malava.

(Collected by Mr. D. F. Vakil of Ratlam.)

TATTOOING is confined to the female sex. The following parts of the body are tattooed:—The forehead, the part between the eye-brows, the left side of the nose, the breast or chest, the upper arms, the forearms between the elbow and the wrist, the backs of the hands and the calves of the legs. Tattooing is generally commenced at the sixth or seventh year of age, and may be done at various periods, sometimes even after the twentieth year. The designs are generally ornamental, and little or no significance is attached to them. Only one of two colours, black or green, is employed.

#### The designs.

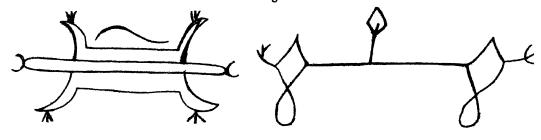
(a) On the back of the hand a figure called Sathia -



(b) On the fingers of the right hand -



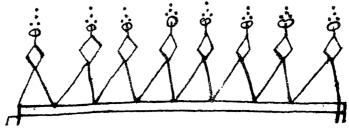
(c) Between the wrist and elbow of the right arm -



(d) On the right arm a pair of peacocks -



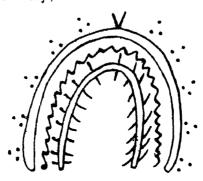
(e) On the left hand (just below the elbow) -



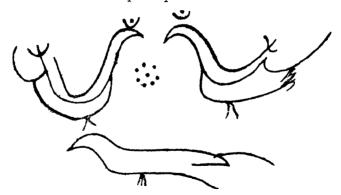
(f) On the left arm the figure of a Barā or armlet —



Also the Dehli Darwājā, as it is called -



(g) On the breast or chest a pair of peacocks and a cuckoo below them -



- (h) On the left side of the nose spots -
- (i) On the chin a spot -

# 2. Tattooing among Labhanas in Malava.

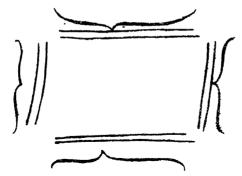
(Collected by Mr. D. F. Vakil of Ratlam.)

Among Labhānās males and females are both tattooed. Among Banjārās tattooing is confined to the female sex only. In the case of Labhānā males, it is confined to the part between the elbow and the wrist, hands, chest, thighs and feet. The marks are found more commonly on the face and the hands. Tattooing is generally commenced before marriage between the eighth and fifteenth year of age.

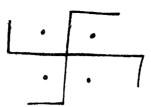
Men tattoo on their hands a dagger -



Women tattoo on the back of their hands-



Between the wrist and elbow a Svāstika -



On the cheeks a circle -

On the chin a dot -

0

Between the two eye-brows -

Round the neck -





#### 3. Tattooing among Bhīls in Mālavā.

(Collected by Mr. D. F. Vakil of Ratlam.)

Tattooing may be said to be wholly confined to the female sex, the males being tattooed in rare cases only, the custom differing from that in Bhōpāwar. The forehead, the backs of the hands, and the legs are generally tattooed. The marks are found most commonly on the legs. Tattooing is commenced at the age of nine or ten, and it is done at once and not at various periods. No ceremony is connected with it. No professional tattooers are employed; the women tattoo their own relatives or friends. On the back of the hand a flower or the figure of a woman with a water-pot on her head, and on the calf of the leg a mango-tree, are the usual designs. Black is the only colour used.

On the forehead a spot -

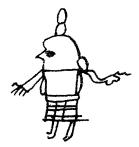
On the hands spots or flowers -

On the calf of the leg a mango-tree -





A Paniari, i.e., a female with a water-pot on her head -

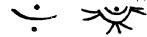


#### 4. Tattooing among Mhars of Malava.

(Collected by Mr. D. F. Vakil of Ratlam.)

Tattooing is invariably confined to the female sex. Males are never known to tattoo. It is confined to forehead, chin, cheeks, and the part between the wrist and elbow. These parts are most exposed to view, and as the main object of tattooing is decoration, parts which are covered by garments are generally not tattooed. It is commenced at the age of seven or eight years and always before the marriage ceremony takes place. The designs employed are figures of the Tulsi, the lotus-flower, the ornamental border of Sītā's sāṛī, the crescent, &c. Sometimes the words the नाम, Rām-nām, and भीनाम, Srī-nām, are pricked on the hand. The forehead is generally tattooed first. The Mhār women here do not get themselves tattooed on the breast or abdomen.

On the forehead the crescent with wheat-grains above and below -



Spots on the chin and cheeks -

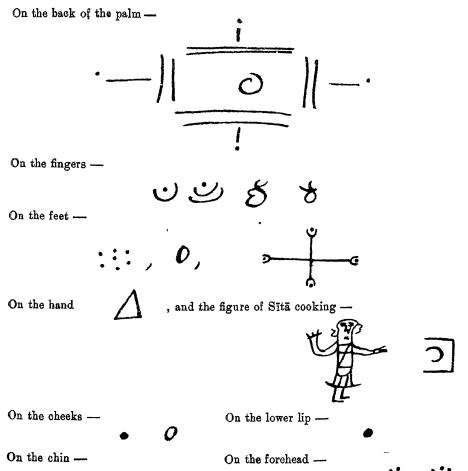
Between the wrist and the elbow, flowers, trees, words, border of Sītā's sā? t, &c. -



# 5. Tattooing among Mālavā Brāhmans, Chhānyatis, Sarvariyās, &c.

(Collected by Mr. D. F. Vakil of Ratlam.)

Tattooing is confined to the female sex only. Tattoo marks are generally made on the following parts of the body: — Forehead, nose, chin, hands, arms, breast, legs and feet. Among the local Sarvariyā Brâhmans, who are a branch of the Kanyākubja Brâhmans, a girl is tattooed immediately after her marriage. Virgins are not tattooed. Among the other Brâhmans tattooing is commenced at about the seventh or the eighth year, irrespective of whether the girls are married or unmarried. No ceremony is connected with it, but molasses and sweets are distributed among the women present. Among Sarvariyā Brâhmans Naṭnīs (female acrobats) are employed, but among others the elderly female members of the family tattoo the young girl. Only one colour is employed — green. The marks are chiefly made on hands, chin, cheeks and forehead.



# 6. Tattoo Marks from the Dhar State.

(Partly Mālavā, partly Jungle Section.)
(Collected by Mr. W. T. Kapse of Dhār.)
Males.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
1	On both the temples	( (	Ākhyā, <b>आख्या</b>	The temples.
		12 W	Ghōḍā, घोडा	Horse.
2	On the chest <	Q B	Mōra, मोर	Peacock,
		DHHHH	Bichhū, बिचू	Scorpion.
S	On the shoulders		Āmba, <b>भांच</b>	Mango-tree.
4	On the arms	W W	Katyār, कट्यार	Dagger.
			Phūl, फूल	Flower.
5	Between the elbow and the wrist.	****	Chaupāṭa, चौपट	A piece of cloth on which the game of सोंगदी, Songati, is played with two or three dice.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
		売うま	Javaurdāņē, जनस्रो रहाणे.	Barley grains.
6	On the wrist {		Chauk, चौक	A square (in marriages thread investitures, &c.) formed with wheat, rice, &c., spread on a cloth which covers a stool (pāt) prepared as a seat for the boy or girl.
		Females.		
		$\psi$	Chandrakör, चंद्रकोर	The new moon.
7	Between the eye-brows	•	Aṅgārā, अंगारा	A talismanic mark to avert the influ- ence of the evil
	l l	¥	Chandrakora ang- ārā, चंद्रकोर व अंगार	eye. The new moon, with the orna- mental mark.
8	On the left side of the nose	•	Tipkā or Dāṇā, टिपका-दाणाः	Dot.
9	On the right cheek	•	Do. do.	Do.
10	On the lower lip	•	Do. do.	Do.
11	On the chin	•	Do. do.	Do.
			Sīta kā hāta, ' सीताका हातः	The hand of Sītā.
12	Between the shoulder and the wrist.		Nisarṇī, निसरणी	Ladder.
		<b>%</b>	Bāvalyā, <b>बावल्या .</b> .	The bâbûl tree (Acacia arabica).

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
,		* •	Chāṇd, चांद	The moon.
		<i>s</i> O	Sūraja, <b>নুংল</b>	The sun.
		· Titt	Rāmnām, रामनाम	The name of Rāma.
		´ İ İ	Panayārav, पनचारवः	Women fetching water-pots.
		8	Pāṅche, पांचे	ed pieces made of lac for girls to
12	Between the shoulder and	° 0	Chakra, चक्र	play with.  A discus.
	the wrist—(contd.).	// O	 Gadā, <b>गहा</b>	A mace.
		// ·	Chālanī, चालनी	A sieve.
		/2	Putlī, <b>पुत्तळी ,</b>	A pair of dolls.
		73 Y Y Y	Sītā Mātā kī Rāṅ- dhaṇī. सीतामाताकी रांधनीः	Sītā's kitchen.
			Sītā Mātā kī Rāṅ- dhaṇī, सीतामाताकी रांधणी	Sītā's kitchen.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
		* <del>}</del>	Bāvalyā, वावल्या	The bâbûl tree (Acacia arabica).
		" (*)	Tulsī Kayārī, तुळसी क्यारी	Tulsī plant in a pot.
		″-1. <u>=</u> :	Gōrbasnyā, गोरबस- न्या	The throne of Gaurī or Pārvatī.
		17	Rāmnāma	The name of Rāma.
12	Between the shoulder and \( \) the wrist—(contd.).		The Gavalani, गवळणी	Milkmaids.
			Rāma Lakhsman kī Jōḍī, रामलक्ष्मणकी बोर्डी•	Rāma and his brother Laksh- maṇa together.
		"	Bēdō, बेडो	Water-pots.
			Palţāna, पलटन	Infantry.
		" 4	Sātyā or Svāstika, सान्या	Svastika.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
of the second se		الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ الْهُ ال	Kanhayyā kā Mu- guṭ, कन्हयाका मुगुट	Kanhayya (Krish na's crown),
to seem to seem the Access to		24	Chhē dāṇē, छे दाणे.	Six dots.
ere enten en deus de destate expendência enten sonais en			Tulsī Kayārā, तु- लसी क्यारा	Bed of Tulsī plants.
	to the second se		Mõra	A peacock.
12	Between the shoulder and { the wrist—(contd.).		Chudīyā or Bāju- banda, चूड़ीया बाजुबंद.	An ornament on the arm or bangles.
		مان المان ال	Hıran ki Jödi, हिरणकी जोडी	f A couple of deer.
rando de com impres city es ils quals quals de la substituta e interna instituta e instituta de la seconda de la s		25	Chaupaț, चौपट (	Cloth on which the game of Sengați is played.
			Hāthī, हाथी A	An elephant.
			Bāvadī, बावडी A	well with steps.

No	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
		**************************************	Sītā Mātā kī Ka ḍhai, सीतामाताकी कढई.	Sītā's frying-pan.
12	Between the shoulder and	" सुक्षी नारायण करमरकर.	Lakshmī  Nārāyaņ  Karmarkar	The name of the woman, her husband and his surname.
	the wrist—(contd.).	MAHADEO RAO	Mahādev Rāv	The name of husband in two characters. (A modern innovation is the use of English character.)
		A vectors	Jāva, जाव	Barley grain.
13	On the wrist		Pĭyar kī Vāṭ, पीयर की वाट-	The way to a mother's house (lit., the way of love). (This is always more pleasant than the one which leads to the mother-in-law's house! Hence its name)
		° 9.	Sankha, রাত্ত	A conch-shell.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
		* <del>(</del> )	Triśūla, বিয়ুল ···	Tridents.
	,	10H	Gōrbasnyā, गोरब- सन्याः	A throne of the goddess Gauri of Pārvatī.
13	On the wrist—(contd.) {		Chālnī, चालनी	Another variety o
		*	Phūl, फूल	Another variety of flower.
		6 0 0 0 0	Kūī, कूई	A well.
		4 0	Dāṇā, <b>दाणा</b>	A dot.
14	On the fingers	<i>s</i> ~	Chānd, चांद	Moon.
1#	Ou ene nuketa	c	Java, जव	Barley.
	-	•	Lavangē, सर्वमे	A clove.

No.	Parts of the body.	Design.	Name of Design.	Meaning of Design.
		::: :::	Tarājvā, तराजवा	A balance, scale.
15	On the abdomen	<u></u>	Satyā, सास्या, or Svastīka.	Svastika.
		**	Phūl	A flower.
16	On the legs	113334	Jhāḍa, झाड	A tree.
			Phūl, फूल	A flower.
17	On the feet	0 0	Dāṇē, <b>हाणे</b>	Dots.

(To be continued.)

# SOME ANGLO-INDIAN TERMS FROM A XVIITH CENTURY MS.

#### BY SIR RICHARD C. TEMPLE, BART.

(Continued from p. 206.)

#### PAGODA.

- Fol. 4. theire Chiefe God of all is in forme of a man Somethinge deformed, & is Set up in theire great Pagods, or temples, . . . . wind many Others Set up in theire Pagod Courts.
  - Fol. 9. In this theire Cathedral Pagod.
- Fol. 57. they have . . . . large ffabricks of Stone called Pagods . . . . . theire most holy and Esteemable Pagod Jn. Genaet.
- Fol. 84. The Bengala's (vizt ye Jdolatrous people of ye countrey) have very Strange ways of worshippinge their Gods (or rather Devils) they Set up in their **Pagods**, as alsoe in their e owne houses.
- Fol. 87. Dureinge ye time of Sicknesse ye Brachmans, some of them are very diligent to sitt by them and pray, Seldom leavinge off Vntill ye Party be quite dead, Especially to put ye party in mind of ye Pagod, to leave to it accordinge to his abilitie.

See Yule, s. v. Pagoda: also ante, Vol. XXII. p. 27.

#### PAGODA.

- Fol. 20. Noe man is admitted to marry Vnlesse he can purchase moneys to y? Value of 20 or 25 pagods a coine very Current here [Choromandel].
  - Fol. 31. much moneys 10 or 20: thousand Pagodes, (each Value 9).
- Fol. 32. this very Commoditie Salt draweth into ye King's Exchequer two Millions of Old Pagodos yearly.
- Fol. 51. ye Merchant giveinge 8:10:20 thousand Pagodos for a Small Spot of land [containing diamonds].
- Fol. 53. Currant Coynes in this Kingdome [Golcondah]. ffort S'! Georg's, vizt New Pagods here coyned passe all y! Kingdome over att ye Rate of 0016 08s 00d. Pullicatt The Pagod Valueth 00 08 06. Golcondah. The Old Pagod Valueth 00 12 00. Porto Novo & Trincombar. The Pagod there Coyned Valueth but 00 06 00.

See Yule, s. r. Pagoda. [The quotations in the text are valuable.]

#### PAINTINGS.

- Fol. 31. Very Considerable quantities of these followinge Commodities are here [Pettipolee] wrought and Sold to fforaign Merchants vizt.... Painted Callicos of divers Sorts.
  - Fol. 49. This part of y? Countrey [Narsapore] affordeth plenty of . . . . Paintings.
  - Fol. 51. This Kingdome [Golcondah] . . . affordeth . . . . paintings.
- Fol. 157. The Chiefe Commodities brought lather from Saratt: are . . . . . course Paintings.

[This useful word is not, though it should have been, in Yule. He quotes Fryer for 1673, s. r. palempore, thus: "Calicuts white & painted." See also s. r. Pintado. It meant what are now known as "prints" and "printed calicoes." N. and E. p. 35, for 5th Oct. 1680: Advice received from Conjeveram that Lingapa had given leave for Paintings and Bantam goods to be brought into Town." P. 37, 27th Oct.: "Upon the discovery being made that

Pedda Yenkatadry's relatives, the Pedda Naigue, the Chief Painter with other painters... had left the Town privately." P.42, 23rd Dec.: "The Malabar painters Tasherift."]

#### PALANKEEN.

- $F_{il}$ . 13. his retinue were as followeth . . . . Six Palanchinos.
- Fol. 20. the Bridegroom and bride are carried in a Palanchino.
- Fol. 41. his Retinue of Attendants and Menial Servants are in great number, he keeps Severall Palanchinoes.
- Fol. 43. A Palanchino is of  $y^e$  forme above described [drawing], beinge a longe Square fframe about 6 foot in length and 3 or  $3\frac{1}{2}$  foot broad, very neatly inlaid w<sup>th</sup> Ivory and Turtle Shell of Excellent Workman ship plated with Silver . . . . with a large Pamboo of about 15 or 16 foot longe, crooked in  $y^e$  middle for  $y^e$  convenience of sittinge Vpright, or may ly downe and Sleep in it.
- Fol. 68. his lumber of travailinge Necessaries vizt Tents, Palanchinoes, Servants Souldiery &c.
- Fol. 80. and thus with many faire wheedles, and comeinge downe (in person) to ye barre with Store of Elephants, Palanchinoes &c pretendinge to waite for ye kissinge of ye Commadore's hand.
- Fol. 33. a Gentue in Hugly died and was brought downe to ye Riuer Side, his Widdow was brought downe in a Palanchino with very great attendance after their manner.

See Yule, s. v. Palankeen. [The quotations are good for the form of the word. N. and E. p. 25, for 28th June 1680, affords a valuable quotation here: "In consequence of a duty of Dustoory or Baratta having been exacted without authority by the Governour's Pallenkeen Booys from all the coolies that carry Pallenkeens, it is resolved to let this right to receive the said Dustoor for one year for the sum of 20 Pagodas." See ante, Vol. XXX. p. 398 f.]

#### PALEMPORES.

- Fol. 37. Metchlipatam. Affordeth many very good and fine Commodities, vizt all Sorts of fine Callicoes plaine and coloured, more Especially fine Pallampores for Quilts.
  - Fol 49. This part of ye Countrey [Narsapore] affordeth plenty of \_\_\_\_\_Pallampores.

See Yule, s. v. Palempore. [A chintz bed-spread.]

#### PALMITO.

- Fol. 29. y. Groves consistinge of . . . Palmito . . . y. Palmito is now more then a rough Sort of Wood . . . . they beare Some bunches of fruite very lucious, but now way pleasant beinge now better then wild dates, they afford liquor also yt drop from y. top of it vizt from ye younge branches and is called date Toddy.
  - Fol. 69. [Cuttack] adorned with . . . delicate Groves of . . . . Palmito.

Not in Yule, though he quotes s. v. Toddy: "1611. Palmiti Wine, which they call Toddy." [In the text the palmito is the date-palm in contradistinction to the palmyra or toddy-palm.]

#### PALMYRA.

- Fol. 18. they write Vpon ye leaves of Palmero trees & wth a Sharpe pointed jron (for the penne) an antient (yea I suppose of ye greatest antiquitie) custome, whence I doe Suppose wee had that Vsual word a leafe of paper.
- Fol. 23. when they are younge (yea in their infancie) they have Small Ones [rings] made of palmero leafe thrust in [their ears].

- Fol. 25. throwinge on much more combustible things, to wit . . . . . . . . dried palmero leaves or the like.
- Fol. 29. ye Groves consistinge of . . . Palmero . . . the Palmero tree affordeth that rare liquor formerly termed Palme-Wine, now vulgarly called Toddy.
  - Fol. 69. [Cuttack] adorned with . . . delicate Groves of . . . Palmero.

See Yule, s. v. Palmyra. [The quotations above are nearly all valuable.]

#### PALMYRA, POINT.

- Fol. 59. Point Palmeris y? Entrance into y? Bay of Bengala . . . . a very wild Open bay that Extendeth it selfe from Point Conjaguaree to Palmeris.
  - Fol. 61. the Sea or Gulph of Bengala: vizt between Point Palmeris (the Entrance thereof). See Yule, s. v. Palmyra, Point. [The quotations above are valuable.]

#### PARA

Fol. 53. Measures [on Choromandel Coast] . . . The Para cont: (?) Markalls.

Not in Yule. [N. and E., p. 23, for 3rd June, 1680, has a very valuable quotation here: "Eight small measures make one Tomb [= Mercall], Five Tombs make one Parra, eighty Parras make one Garce." It is a pity that the text has a blank just here.]

#### PARIAH.

Fol. 27. there are another Sort of inhabitants about this [Choromandel] Coast that are y. Offscum of all y. rest they are called Parjars, they are of noe Cast whatever.

See Yule, s. v. Pariah. [N. an l E., p. 34, for 21st Sept., 1680, has "every village has a Cancoply [clerk] and a Paryar [servant] who are imployed in this office which goes from Father to Son."]

#### PATAM.

Fol. 35. Metchlipatam: Soe called from ye Hindostan ore Moors Languadge word Metchlisignifieinge fish and patam or Patanam a towne.

Not in Yule.

#### PATANI.

- Fol. 145. Hee hath always been a great peace maker amonge y? Neighbouringe [to Queda] Kings Viz! Pattany & Johore.
- Fol. 152. Pattanie, a Kingdome that is near neighbour to this [Queda] lyinge on ye East Side of this great Neck of Land called ye Malay Coast.

Not in Yule.

#### PATNA.

- Fal 64. y. Government of the 3 kingdoms (namely) Orixa: Bengala: & Pattana: was Established Vpon Emir Jemla.
- Fol. 67. In ye yeare 1678: the Emperour's Son . . . . he sends him into ye Kingdome of Pattana.
- Fol. 68. Many of the Grandees of these 3 Kingdomes mett their Prince at Pattana and the rest at Radja Mehal.
- Fol. 97. Pattana: A Very large and potent Kingdome... this is a Countrey of very great Trafficke & Commerce & is really ye great Gate ye Openeth into Bengala and Orixa... The Chiefe Citty called Pattana: a very large and Spacious one indeed and is Scituate neare to the Riuer of Ganges: many miles up.

Fol. 98. The English East India Company have a ffactory in Pattana, adjoyneinge to the Citty.... The English Chiefe (by name) Job: Chanock: hath hued here many years.

See Yule, s. v. Patna.

#### PATTELLO.

- Fol. 68. he laded 60 Patellas with Silver and by credible report tenne with Gold Moors, each Patella not carryinge lesse one with another... then 25 or 30 tunns of Plate.
- Fol. 98. great flatt bottomed Vessels, of an Exceedinge Strength were are called Patellas, each of them will bringe downe 4: 5: 6000: Bengala Maunds.... Many Patellas come downe yearly laden with Wheat and Other graine and goe Vp laden with Salt and bees wax ye Kings onely commodities.
- Fol. 101. Patella: The boats that come downe from Pattana wth Saltpeeter or Other goods built of an Exceedinge Strength and are Very flatt and burthensome.

See Yule, s. v. Pattello. [The quotations are valuable.]

#### PAWN.

Fol. 45. often chawinge Betelee Areca went they call Paune.

See Yule, s. v. Pawn.

#### PECUL.

Fol. 171. they carried away above 100 Picul of fine Gold out of ye Treasury.

See Yule, s. v. Pecul. [The Malay cwt.] See also ante, Vol. XXVIII. 37 ff.]

#### PEGU.

- Fol. 84. [Gong] made of fine Gans of Pegu.
- Fol. 148.  $y^{e}$  Kinge of Syam . . . haveinge a warre of greater consequence in hand namely  $w^{th}$   $y^{e}$  Kinge of Pegu.
- Fol. 157. Many Ships and Vessels doe...arrive in this Port [Achin] from . . . Pegu.

See Yule, s. v. Pegu.

#### PEON.

- - Fol. 91. to Suppresse y? Leachery of him and his Punes.

See Yule, s. v. Peon. [The "boy" in "foot-boys" above is probably also an Anglo-Indianism: see Yule, s. v. Boy.]

#### PERAK.

- Fol. 153. about 30 or 40 Prows they have yt belonge to Queda yt constantly trade to Bangaree: Ianselone: and Pera, some few to Achin.
  - Fol. 158. ffrom . . . . . . Pera &c : on ye Malay Coast little Save Tinne.

Not in Yule. [Perdk is a Malay State having about 100 miles of coast line on the west of the Malay Peninsula.]

#### PESHCUSH.

Fol. 71. She a most mannish woman of these ages couragiously sends him word she owed him nothinge, nor had she ever rec! any Piscash from him whereby to make retalliation.

- Fol. 72. According to his Expectation ye English and Dutch Agents and their councels went out in State to waite vpon him carryinge considerable Piscashes with them to pisent him with.
  - Fol. 73. see that they were forced to Piscash them accordinge to their owne demands.
- Fol. 134. Two of ye Grandees of his Councill must also be Piscashed wth 6 pieces of fine Callicoes or Chint each of them:
- Fol. 146. y. English Merchant presenteth him win a piscash not Valueinge lesse then 50 pound Sterlinge.... When y. Said Merchant cometh downe to Queda he Piscasheth y. younge Kinge alsoe win almost soe much [in Value] as he did y. Old one.

See Yule, s. v. Peshcush. [An obligatory gift to a high official.]

#### PETTAPOLY.

- Fol. 31. ye Next English ffactorie wee have is Pettipolee.... it lyeth to the S Ward of Point Due in a Sandy bay called Pettipolee bay, ye English and Dutch have Each of them a ffactory in ye towne.
  - Fol. 31. Great Abundance of White Salt is made in ye Values of Pettipolee.
- Fol. 32. Anno Dom: 1672 I stroke downe to Pettipolee in a journey I tooke Overland ffrom S't Georg's to Metchlipatam.

Not in Yule.

#### PICAN.

Fol. 53. in Narsapore & ye Villadges 20 or 30 miles off they have a Small Sort of moneys made of lead like Swan Shot and are called Picans many hundreds of them passe for One Rupee.

Not in Yule.

#### PINE, PINE APPLE.

Fol. 150. They have Severall Sorts of very good ffruit in the Countrey [Queda].... Pines, of wen last they have in great abundance more then in any Other Countrey yt Ever I was in y? Figure of y? Pine Apple as followeth [illustration].

Yule has no quotations for Pine-Apple, but see those s. v. Ananas.

#### PINJREE.

Fol. 43. With a Scarlet or broadcloth coveringe (called a Pingaree) Stretched out Square [over a Palanchino].

Not in Yule. [Pinjra, pinjra, is ordinary Hindustani for a cage.]

#### PINTADO.

Fol. 7. alsoe very ingenuous in workinge Cotton Cloth or Silks, pantados.

See Yule, s. v. Pintado. [The Portuguese form of "paintings" (q. v.) or prints.]

#### PIPLY.

- Fol. 73. he wold Every years Send downs to y. Merchants in . . . Piplo.
- Fol. 77. The Nabob and Some Merchants here and in Ballasore & Piplo.
- Fol. 100. These Vse for the most part between Hugly & Pyplo & Ballasore.

Not in Yule, though it certainly should be. [One of the earliest Factories in Bengal.]

### PLANTAIN.

Fol. 38. Each of these huge Annimals [elephants], must have at ye least 70: plantan trees laid in for his provender.... they never let them drinke any water at Sea, a Plantan tree beinge a Very liquorish thing Naturally and will not dry up much in lesse then 2 months.

- Fol. 134. doth often Send us . . . . plantans . . . . all the fruite this countrey [Janselone] affordeth is Coconutt Plantan . . . . but noe fruit see plenty here as the Plantan.
- Fol. 147. haveinge ye tame Elephants by them, and good Store of victuals, as plantrees [contemporary form of "plane-trees"], younge bamboos and ye like.

See Yule, s. v. Plantain [The last quotation is valuable.]

#### POLLICULL.

Fol. 49. The Dutch have a ffactorie 4 English miles above ours, & is called **Pollicull**: after ye name of a Villadge there unto adjoyneinge.

Not in Yule. [Near Madapollam or Narsapore (q. v.).]

#### POMMELO.

Fol. 175. This Countrey [Achin] affordeth Severall Excellent good fruites, Namely . . . . . Pumple Mooses &c: and ye trees beare fruite both green and ripe all ye yeare alonge.

See Yule, s. v. Pommelo: the largest variety of orange.

#### PONDICHERRY.

Fol. 142. y. Southermost parts of y. Choromandell Coast, Vizt. . . Pullicherrie.

See Yule, s. v. Pondicherry. [The above is a most valuable quotation for the history of this name. N. and E. has, p. 20, for 23rd May. 1680, Puddicherry, and p. 25, for 28th June, Puddicherree.]

#### PONE

Fol. 94. 4 burries make 1 Pone or 80: Cowries. 16 Pone make 1 Cawne or 1280: Cowries. . . . They seldome rise or fall more then 2 Pone in one Rupee.

Not in Yule. [It is for pan; see ante, Vol. XXVII. p. 170.]

#### POONDY.

Fol. 56. beinge a Very Secure Coast to harbour in namely in . . . . Pondi.

Not in Yule. [Near Vizagapatam : see ante, Vol. XXX. p. 356.]

#### PORE.

Fol. 83. when he hath Strucken Seven: he then Striketh 1: viz! One Pore.... and then Striketh 2 viz! 2 Pore: viz! midday or midnight, as 9 in y! morneinge Is one Pore, 12 att Noone is 2 Pore, 3 in y! afternoone 3 Pore, O Settinge 4 Pore and soe of y! night.

[For pahra, a watch.] See Yule, s. v. Puhur, Ghurry, and Gong.

#### PORGO.

Fol. 100. A Purgoo: These Vse for the most part between Hugly & Pyplo and Ballasore: with these boats they carry goods into ye Roads On board English & Dutch &c: Ships, they will liue a longe time in ye Sea: being brought to anchor by ye Sterne, as theire Vsual way is.

See Yule, s. v. Porgo: but see also ante, Vol. XXX. p. 160.

#### PORTO NOVO.

- Fol. 41. y. Kinge of Golcondah, Sole Lord and Kinge of all this Coast saveinge to y. Southward of Porto Novo.
  - Fol. 53. Porto Novo & Tricombar.
  - Fol. 142. y. Southermost parts of y. Choromandell Coast, Viz! Porto Novo.

See Yule, s. v. Porto Novo; who doe not, however, trace the history of the place. [The following quotations from N. and E. are very valuable in this connection. P. 13, 20th March 1680:

"Intelligence received from Porto Novo that the Dutch have leave to settle a Factory there." P. 44, 6th January 1681: "Accordingly it is resolved to supply to the Soobidar of Sevagee's Country of Chengy for a Cowle to settle Factories at Cooraboor and Coonemerro and also at Porto Novo, if desired, the Company's Merchants engaging to deliver cloth there at the same rates as here."]

#### PORTUGUESE.

- Fol. 83. The Portugueeses haveing collected a good Sum of moneys to ye End they might build a very large & decent Church.

Not in Yule. [By Portugals and Portugueses were meant Portuguese half-breeds and also Roman-Catholic converts, often pure Natives of the country. N. and E. p. 38, for 1st November 1680, has a valuable quotation here: "It is resolved to Entertain about 100 Topasses or Black Portugez, the better to guard the washers."]

#### PROW.

- $F_{ol}$ . 131. Piratts . . . have many cunninge places to hide themselves and their men of warre Prows in.
- Fol. 138. A great prow of about 40 tunns in burthen had gott in privately and traded for tinne... the Dutch... by order of theire Chiefe Merchant there Seized y. Prow... therefore that Prow and her goods were theire lawfull Prize... tooke y. Prow and her goods by Violence out of y. hands of y. Dutch.
- Fol. 139. each of the 3 Sea Ports Shold build and fitt out to Sea 2 men of warre Prows, each to carry 10 gunns and Pattereros, & well manned and fitted with Small arms.
  - Fol. 144. they Sent away yo Other Seamen in a Prow bound for Achin.
- Fol. 144. but they [the Portugueeses] did not longe remaine in Slavery before they tooke a fitt Opportunitie to make their Escape in a Prow.
- Fol. 153. 5 or 6 great Prows yearly from Borneo, and about 30 or 40 Prows they have yt belonge to Queda.
  - Fol. 157. with infinite Numbers of Prows from ye Malay Shore.
- Fol. 161. there is Sent off from y: Custome-house a Small flyinge Prow . . . y: Prow geeth on Shore again.

See Yule, s. v. Prow, and ante, Vol. XXX.p. 160. [Yule's information requires much supplementing.]

#### PRYAMAN.

Fol. 159. There are Severall Radjas Vpon Sumatra . . . . Especially those of . . . Pryaman.

Not in Yule.

#### PULICAT.

Fol. 31. Some twenty or twenty two miles to y: Northward of ffort S'! Georg's the Dut[e]h have a towne and Garrison called Pullicatt.

See Yule, s. v. Pulicat, and ante, Vol. XXX. p. 355.

#### PULO

Fol. 149. Pullo in ye Malay tongue Signifieth Jsland.

Not in Yule.

#### PULO GOMUS.

Fol. 157. [Achin Road] almost land locked wth ye head of Sumatra: Pullo Way: and Pullo Gomus: and 2 or 3 Small Jslands and rocks, ye land is all Mountaneous and woody Save where ye Citty Standeth: more Especially the 2 Jslands Way and Gomus, haveinge noe low land about them, nor are they inhabited more then wth Some banished Cripples Sent from ye Citty.

Not in Yule, but see his quotation s. v. Penang.

#### PULO SAMBELONG.

Fol. 131. The Salecters are absolute Piratts, and often cruiseinge about Ianselone & Pullo Sambelon &c Jsles neare this Shore.

Not in Yule. [Off the South-West Coast of the Malay Peninsula.]

#### PULO WAY.

Fol. 157. [Achin Road] almost land locked win yo head of Sumatra Pullo Way: and Pullo Gomus. . . . Especially the 2 Jslands Way and Gomus, haveinge noe low land about them, nor are they inhabited more then win Some banished Cripples Sent from yo Citty.

Not in Yule.

#### PUTTA.

Fol. 132. They have noe Sort of Coyned monies here [Janselone] save what is made of tinne, we is melted into Small lumps.... One Small lumpe or Putta valueth here 3! Engsh One great Putta is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  Small ones Val:  $7\frac{1}{2}$  penny Engh we is theire Currant moneys and noe Other.... when a Small parcell then for soe many Viece: or soe many great or Small puttas: 4 great puttas make a Viece 10 Small ones is a Viece.

Not in Yule.

#### QUALA.

Fol. 161. brought to Quala (vizt) ye barre att ye Riuer's mouth by one of ye Queen's [of Achin] Eunuchs.

Not in Yule: the estuary of a large river. See also Yule, s. v. Calay.

#### QUEDDA

- Fol. 77. The Elephants of Ceylone are best Esteemed of here . . . then those of Tanassaree Queda: or Syam.
- Fol. 143. Queda: A Kingdome (soe called) Vpon y? Malay Coast, the Chiefe Roade & Riuer called of y? Same from the Chiefe towne or Citty thereof. It is y? largest and most Navigable Riuer in this Kingdome... and Navigable att any time up to y? towne of Queda: wen is not lesse then 60 English miles above y? barre thereof.
- Fol. 144. But many rogues lye Sculkinge about ye Islands of Queda and about ye River of Old Queda. . . . . came boldly Vp to Queda and Sold the goods to Sarajah Cawn: a Chulyar & chiefe Shabandar of Quedah.
- Fol. 145. This Kingdome hath lived Vnder a happy Government in peace many years with all Nations Save ye Hollander, whose have warre wto Queda (through theire owne Seekinge).
  - Fol. 146. feasteth them very Nobly, (& Royally accordinge to y. Custome of Queda).

Fol. 148. The Kinge of Queda is Tributary to him of Syam, although ye tribute he payeth be but inconsiderable in it Selfe, beinge noe more then annually a gold flowre, not Exceedinge 20 pieces of 8 in Value, yet he must Send or incurre his displeasure, ye like all ye Kings Vpon ye Malay Coast must doe.

Fol. 153. This River of Queda is a Very good River and soe is that of Old Queda yt lyeth to y? Southward of this.

See Yule, s. v Quedda. [The quotations are good.]

(To be continued.)

#### NOTES ON INDIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

BY J F. FLEET, ICS (RETD), PH D., C.I.E.

#### Kavîsvara's Kavirâjamârga.1

THERE is a Kanarese metrical work, entitled Kavirajamarga, - or, by slightly free translation. "the Path of Poets Laureate," — which deals with alankara or the art of ornate poetical expression. It appears to have been first brought to notice in 1890,2 in Karnatakaśabdanuśasanam, Introd. pp. 7, 23, by Mr. Rice, who. wrongly attributed the composition of it to the Rashtrakuta king Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I. It has been "edited" by Mr. K. B. Pathak, B.A., in the capacity of "Assistant to the Director of Archæological Researches in Mysore," as a volume of the Bibliotheca Carnatica, entitled "Nripatunga's Kavirajamargga," published in 1898 at Bangalore under the "direction" of Mr. Rice. And, in the opening words of the editor's Introduction, - which, it may be remarked, has been also issued, without its last four or five paragraphs, as an article in the Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. Vol. XX. pp. 22 to 39, — it is indicated as the oldest Kanarese work that has as yet been discovered. It may well be such; though it is not by any means the earliest specimen of the Kanarese language, as we have Kanarese records of the Western Chalukya kings, of the Rashtrakuta kings, and of the Western Ganga princes of Mysore, which are of earlier times, And it is also of interest in having a bearing upon the date of the Sanskiit writer Daudin, whose treatment of the same topic has been, partially at any rate, followed, whether by direct adaptation or by second-hand borrowing, in it. And it is, therefore, worth while to consider carefully what the period and circumstances of the composition of this work really were. The work is not dated. But it contains statements and allusions, by means of which the points in question can be determined.

As may be gathered even from the title given by him to his volume, the editor of this so-called Nripatunga's Kavirajamarga has followed Mr. Rice in assigning the composition of it to the Rashtrakuta king Nripatunga-Amoghavarsha I. He has primarily based

It may be thought that this Note, which is practically a review of a book that was published in 1898, makes a rather late appearance. And so it does. But, for a long time after the book in question reached me, in 1899, I was unable to write about it, partly through being very much engaged in more important work, and partly because of the difficulty of obtaining in England some other Kanarese books which it was necessary to examine and quote. And now, for more than a year, the Note has lain among my papers, finished except for the final reading that was of course necessary before sending it out, but a constant pressure of affairs has prevented me from giving it that final reading. I do not, however, regret the delay; because recent receipt of Mr. E. Narasimhachar's edition of the Kânyârak'îkana (see note 5 on page 197 above), — one of the other works which I particularly wanted to see, — has enabled me to make some very appropriate improvements, especially in connection with the fact that there were two Kanarese writers, and not simply one, named Nâgavarma. — J F. F.; November, 1963.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The editor of the Kavir jamarja has said, almost at the beginning of his Introduction, that the Kavir jamarga "was first introduced to Oriental Scholars by Mr Rice in a paper contributed to the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society." And to this remark he has attached the footnote "For July 1883," without specifying any page. I have had occasion to read, more than once, Mr. Rice's article on "Early Kannada Authors" in the Jour. R. As. Soc., N. S., Vol. XV., 1883, pp. 295 to 314. With nothing to guide me beyond the vague and slovenly reference given by the editor of the Kavir jamarga, I can only say that, in that article by Mr. Rice, I cannot find any mention of the work in question, or detect anything that can be recognised as an allusion to it.

that conclusion upon three expressions in the work itself, which he has quoted on page 2 of h.s. Introduction. According to the text of the book, those expressions are, in chapter 3, verse 98, -Nnipatungadêva-matadinde, - "by the opinion of Nripatungadêva;" in chapter 3, veise 11, -Atisayadhavala-dharadhipa-matadindam, - "by the opinion of the king Atisayadhavala;" and in chapter 3, verse 1, — akhila-dharâ-vallabban . . . . Amôghavarshsha-nṛipêndram, — "the great king Amôghavarsha, the favourite of the whole earth." The editor, - who, it may here be remarked once for all, has for the most part abstained from presenting translations of passages relied on by him or even indicating the meaning of them, and so has avoided facilitating an understanding of the matter by those who do not know Kanarese, - has not said anything about the context of these expressions, which he has thus detached from their surroundings. Nor has he attempted to shew how these three separate expressions are to be combined with each other. But, from the simple citation of them, he has proceeded to say: - "From these expressions it is manifest "that Nripatuiga composed the Kavirajamarga, that he had the titles of Amôghavarshsha and · Atisavadhavala, and that he was a paramount sovereign. And since he writes in Kannala, it may "be turther inferred that the Karnataka formed part of his dominions. Two verses" - (a footnote specifies chapter 1, verse 90, and chapter 3, verse 18), - "which praise Jina, reflect the religious "opinions of the author. These facts enable us to identify him with the Rashtrakûta emperor "Nripatunga or Amôghavarshsha I." A more feeble way of asserting a result, without any attempt at explanation or argument, could hardly be conceived. But that is not all. Having started by enunciating that result, the editor has proceeded to tell us (Introd. p. 2) that there are "one or two "expressions," in the colophons and elsewhere in the work, which are "apt" to lead us into a belief opposed to it. He has then explained away, to his own satisfaction, in a manner which will be exhibited further on, the obstacle raised by the colophons. He has not attempted to explain away the obstacle presented by another passage (chapter 2, verse 53), mentioning the name of Atisayadhavala but not of Nripatunga, which, he has admitted, "cannot be so satisfactorily explained," and "is calculated to give one the impression that the writer of the work was different from "Nripatunga." But, stamping it as a solitary instance, he has proceeded (Introd. p. 3) to set off against it four other passages (chapter 1, verses 24, 147, chapter 2, verse 27, and chapter 3, verse 1), in respect of which it is sufficient to say, here, that neither does any one of them, nor does the context of any one of them, mention the name of Nripatunga; they mention only the names Atisayadhavala and Amôghavarsha. He has then cited two passages which do not mention either of the two names which are mentioned in those four passages. Of these two passages, one (chapter 3, verse 225) sumply compares some person, who the editor says is Nripatunga, and whom we may take to be Nripatunga though his name is not mentioned in it, to "a flight of steps leading to the sacred waters of "Sarasvati" And the other (chapter 3, verse 230) says, according to the editor's rendering of it, that "knowledge contained in Nripa-tunga-dêva-mârgga or Kavirâja-mârgga is a ship which safely "carries a high-souled person across the ocean of Kannada poetry." We need not lay any stress upon the fact that the original of this passage does not contain anything answering to the words "or "Kavirāja-mārgga" and "Kannada," which are gratuitous insertions by the editor. The editor has then proceeded to tell us that "these facts" - (namely, the six passages thus presented by him) -" prove that Nripatunga composed the present work." He has then cited two verses, which, he has said, tell us that "Nripatunga-dêva-margga means the path indicated by the great Nripatunga." Of these, one is verse 105 of chapter 2, from which he has quoted the words, - mahâ-Nripatungadêvan=adaradole pêlda margga, -- which would mean literally "the path very kindly (or encourag-"ingly) declared by the great Nripatungadêva;" the other is verse 106 of chapter 3, which does not mention the name of Nripatunga, and from which he has quoted the words, - Atisayadhavalôpadêśa-mârgga, - which mean literally "the path of the teaching of Atisayadhavala." And he has arrived at the conclusion (Introd. p. 3) that the title of the work, Kavirdjandrga, is thus "easily "explained" as meaning "the path indicated by the king of poets who is no other than Nripatunga "himself."

Having thus followed the editor through a series of mere assertions which do not present anything in the way of discriminative reasoning, we may now proceed to deal with the matter in a methodical manner. As, unfortunately, so often happens in correcting a wrong assertion, the misleading result propounded by the editor in respect of the author of the work cannot be replaced by the correct result by an equally brief process. But the longer inquiry has this advantage, that it leads us ultimately to some interesting points which the editor has overlooked altogether, — the name of the real author of the work, the name of the earlier authority whom he followed, and the way in which he proceeded in composing his work.

In trying to discover the person by whom any particular ancient work has been composed, we most naturally look, in the first place, to any colophon which that work may have. And we, therefore, turn first to the colophons of the Kavirajamarga, of which there are three, one at the end of each of its three parichchhédas or chapters.

The colophon of the first chapter runs: 3 — Gadya II Idu parama-śrî-Nṛipatuṅgadêv-ânumatam=appa Kavirājamārggadoļ dôshādôsh-ânuvarṇṇana-nirṇṇayaṁ prathama-parichchhêdaṁ.

The colophon of the second chapter runs: — Idu śrî-Nṛipatuṅgadêv-ânumatam=appa Kavirājamârggadoļ śabdâlamkara-varṇṇanâ-nirṇṇayam dvitîya-parichchhêdam sampūrṇṇam.

And the colophon of the third chapter runs: — Idu parama-Sarasvatîtîrithâvatâra-Nripatungadêv-ânumatam=appa Kavirâjamârggadoļ=artthâlamkâram tritîya-parichchhêdam µ Kavirâjamârgg-âlamkâram samâptam µ

For the information of Sanskritists who may not know Kanarese, it is to be explained that the word Kavirājamārggado! is the locative singular, and that appa is a form of the relative present participle of agu, 'to become,' and has the effect of placing the word which precedes it in apposition with that locative 'The exactly corresponding Sanskrit expression, for the colophon of the first chapter, would be parama . . . . dnumaté Kavirājamārggé. And the literal translation of that colophon is: — "Ornate prose. This is the first chapter, (entitled) the description of those things which are faults and those which are not faults, in the Kavirājamārga which is approved of (or concurred in) by the most glorious Nripatungadêva." The colophons of the second and third chapters, which deal with embellishment of sound and embellishment of sense, have exactly the same purport in respect of the point under consideration.

It seems almost absurd, to have to point out that, if there had been an intention to indicate actual composition of the work by the Nripatuiga who is thus mentioned in the colophons, there would have been used, instead of anumata, 'assented to, concurred in,' some such word as rachita or virachita, 'composed,' or krita, 'made.' Nothing could be plainer than the fact that the colophons distinctly shew that the Kavirajamarga was not composed by Nripatuiga, and that it was composed by some other person who represented himself as simply putting forward views concurred in by Nripatuiga. The editor, however, while admitting (Introd. p. 2) that the colophons are some of "one or two expressions occurring in the present work, which are apt to

I have felt some doubt as to the best way of presenting those passages of the original which I quote. The editor's transliterated text does certainly not represent the original exactly as it stands. And there is no guarantee that his Kanarese text does so. I have taken the latter as my guide. But I have replaced the anusuaras by the proper nasals, wherever the use of the latter is more correct. And I have followed a frequent custom of Native books, in omitting to shew sandhi between a word ending with r, l, or l, and a following word commencing with a consonant.

<sup>\*</sup> We may compare in this detail, and contrast in the use of virachita instead of anumata, the latter part of the colophon of, for instance, the first canto of the Pumpa-Ramayana, a work to which we have to refer for other purposes further on: — Idu parama-Jina-samaya-kumudini-sarachchandra-Bâlachandramunindra-charana-nakha-kiraṇa-chandrikâ-chakôram Bhâratika-ṇṇapūram śrimad-Abhinava-Pampa-virachitam-appa Râmachandracharita-purâṇadol piệhikâ-prakaraṇam pratham-âśvāsam.

"lead one into the belief that Nripatunga may not have been the real author of the work," has had the assurance to follow up that admission by the assertion that "the word 'anumatam' is obviously "intended to express the author's approval"— (that is, according to his representation of the matter, the approval of Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I.)— "of those views of his predecessors, which are summarised in the present work." That assertion is nothing but a gratuitous misrepresentation of the meaning of the colophons, which do not contain any allusion of any kind to views of predecessors. And there is not anything in the body of the work, which could justify any such tampering with the plain meaning of the colophons.

The next most natural step is to turn to the opening verses of the work. The first two verses run as follows:—

Siî talt=uradol kaustubha-

jâta-dyuti balasi kâṇḍapaṭad=ant-ire sam- |

pritiyin=avanan=agalal

Nîtinirantaran=udâran=â Nripatungam ! 1, 1.

Kritakrityamallan=aprati-

hata-vikraman=osedu Vîranarayanan=a- 1

pp=Atisayadhavalam namag=ig=

atarkkitôpasthita-pratâp-ôdayamam II 1, 2.

Translation: — (Verse 1) "Let Fortune, — clinging to (his) breast, with the lustre, born from the kaustubha-jewel, lying round (her) like a screen surrounding a tent, — not abandon with (her) affection him (literally, whom?); (namely) the noble Nitinirantara ("he who never ceases to display statesmanship"), that (famous, or well-known) Nripatunga!"—(Verse 2) "Let Atisaya-dhavala, — who is Kritakrityamalla ("the wrestler, or the most excellent, of those who have done their duty"), and who, possessing prowess which has not been checked (just as the god Vishnu-Nardyana had three strides which were not obstructed), has pleasingly become Viranarayana, — give to us a development of power that comes quite unexpectedly!"

In respect of the next two verses, it is sufficient to state that, in them, the author has given utterance, in expanded terms, to the prayers: — "Let the goddess Sarasvati lovingly take up her abode in my thoughts!" and: — "Let those supreme great poets, from whose jaws compositions, properly adorned by the most excellent embellishments, have made their appearance, be our aid in this work!"

The real nature of the first and second verses is quite unmistakable. In the first of them. the author of the work prays that good fortune may never desert a person, Nripatunga, whom the expressions employed by him mark as a person of exalted rank. In the second, he asks Atisayadhavala, - whom, in this stage of the inquiry, we might, or might not, be inclined to identify with the Nripatunga who is mentioned in the preceding verse, -- to inspire him with a power, in dealing with the subject lying before him, which he himself, unaided, could not hope to display. And the true nature of the second verse, at any rate, was rightly understood by Mr. Rice, when he said: — "Commencing with reverence to Atisaya-dhavala, i. e. his father "Gôvinda or Prabhûta-varsha, 'to whose court only learned and skilful poets were admitted.' "Nripatuiga goes on to mention," &c.5 That exposition of the verse, indeed, involved the nustakes of taking Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I. to be the author of the work, and of taking Atisayadhavala to be his father Prabhûtavarsha-Gôvinda III., though it had been made known from the Sirûr inscription, published seven years before that sentence was issued, that Atisayadhavala was Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I.6 But Mr. Rice was so far correct, in that he properly understood this verse as containing a prayer or request addressed by the author of the work to Atisayadhavala. On the other hand, the editor of the Kavvajamarga could not, and did not, ignore the fact that

<sup>5</sup> Karnûtakaŝabdûnusûsanam, Introd. p. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Vol. XII. above, p. 215. For a revised edition of this record, see Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 202.

Atisayadhavala was Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I. But, in order to uphold the assertion that Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I. was the author of the work, he was obliged to misrepresent the real nature of these two verses. And he has asserted (Introd. p. 3) that "Kannada authors sometimes transfer their own titles to the god whose aid they invoke in their works;" and, for some reason or other omitting at this point the appellation Atisayadhavala, he has followed up this assertion by the amazing statement that "it is therefore not surprising to find that the god who is praised in "the opening verses of the Kavirajamarga is called Niipatunga, Nitinirantara, Kritakritya-malla "and Vîra-Narayana." This statement, which simply means that Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I., as the (alleged) author of the work, invented a god, and invested him with four of his own appellations, merely in order to invoke him in the opening verses of his work, cannot be characterised, mildly, as anything but a most indecorous attempt by the editor to abuse the confidence of his readers.

In support of his general assertion that Kanarese authors sometimes transferred their own titles to gods whose aid they invoked in their works, the editor has put forward only one alleged specific case. He has said (Introd. p. 3): - "Abhinava-Pampa may be cited as an "instance in point." And for this he has given, in a footnote, the hopelessly vague reference ··Pampa-Râmâyana, edited by Mr. Rice.' It would be a large order, to peruse the whole of the Pampa-Ramayana on the strength of such an assertion and reference. And it is, really, unnecessary to attempt the task; because whatever might have been done by Abhinava-Pampa or any other writers, it would not upset the plan meaning of the references to the author's patron, and not to any god, as Nîtinirantara, Ni ipatunga, Atisayadhavala, Kritakrityamalla, and Vîranârâyana, in the first two verses of the Kavirajamarga. But this much may be said, as the result of an examination of those parts of the Pampa-Râmâyana or Râmachandracharitapurâna, according to the revised edition, published as a volume of the Bibliotheca Carnatica at Bangalore in 1892,7 in which we might hope to find anything tending to support or excuse the assertion made by the editor of the Kavirajamarga. The author of the Pampa-Ramayana has not invoked any god at all in the introductory stanzas of his work, namely, verses 1 to 41 of the first asvasa or canto. Nor has he invoked any god in the colophons, of which there are sixteen, one to each canto; his only allusion to a god there (see, for instance, note 4 on page 260 above) is in his description of his preceptor. Bâlachandra, as "the autumn moon of the group of water-likes that was the doctrine of the supreme Juna." He has presented his own personal name, Nagachandra, in the two concluding stanzas of the work, verses 97, 98 of canto 16: but he has not there alluded to any god named after himself: in those two verses, he has simply sounded his own praises, asserting8 that he was the only real poet upon whom Sarasvati had conferred the boon of being ab'e to do justice to the story of Rama. and that no poets, past or contemporaneous, had dealt with it so ably.9 In each of the sixteen eolophons, he has described the work as "composed (virachita) by Bhâratîkarṇapûra, the famous

The title-page marks this volume as edited by Mr. Rice. But on page 13 of the Introduction we are told that his Senior Pandit, Mr. Buradagunte Srinivas Ayyangar, corrected this revised edition throughout, and "may be considered its editor."—I had to obtain this book, in order to investigate the assertion made in connection with it And it took a long time to procure a copy. Eventually, a copy reached me in June, 1902.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See, more fully, the abstract translation of these two verses on page 96 of the Introducton to the *Pampa-Rimigana*. In the text given there in a footnote, the word *Jama-katheyani*, in the last line of verse 97 (= 98), does not agree with the Kanarese text of the work itself, which presents *Râma-katheyani* 

These two verses illustrate a habit which various Kanarese authors had, of singing their own praises on every possible occasion, and sometimes in very high-flying language. The following other samples of these "not unfrequent but strange verses," as Dr. Kittel has termed them, may be brought together here.

In the third of the concluding verses of his Sabdamandarpana, Kêsirâja has declared that, recognising the abundance of charms in it, all learned people will do honour to hi, work as a tasteful ornament to Śri and a second lute to Sarasvati.

In verse 10 of the first canto of his Pampa-Bhârata or Vikramârjunavijaya, the original Pampa has proclaimed himself pre-eminent in poetry just as his patron Guṇârṇava-Arikêsrrin II. was pre-eminent in virtue; and, in verse 59 of the last canto, he has asserted that his Bhârata and Âdipurâ ia had thrust down and trampled on all previous poems.

And, in his Chhandômbudhi or Chhandômburdśi, the earlier Nâgavarma has "gone one better still:" in the first verse, speaking of himself as Kaviråjahamsa, he has announced that his extensive command of the choice of words

Abhinava-Pampa;"10 and he has thus shewn that he had the secondary appellations of Abhinava-Pampa, by which he seems to have been best known, and of Bhâratîkarṇapûra. He has introduced the appellation Abhinava-Pampa in the first verse of each canto after the first. He has introduced the appellation Bhâratîkarnapûra in the last verse of each of cantos 2, 3, 7 and 8. And he has similarly introduced an appellation Kavitamanôhara in the last verse of each of cantos 1, 10, and 12 to 15, and an appellation Sâhityavidyâdhara in the last verse of each of cantos 4 to 6, 9, and 11; whereby he has established for himself the further appellations Kavitâmanôhara and Sâhityavidvadhara. In all these passages, however, the author has distinctly alluded to himself, and not to any god named after himself. The real nature of these allusions by the poet to himself, was properly recognised by the editor of the Pampa-Ramayana, who, on page 19 of his Introduction to the work. has, in his analysis of the poem, summarised verse 1 of canto 2 as "invocation praising himself;" to which he has attached the footnote: - "It is a peculiarity of the poem that the concluding and opening stanza of each áśvása, in continuing the action described in the narrative, introduces the "author's name in place of the hero's." But, as a sample of what the poet actually did, we will examine the passages which first introduce the appellations Kavitâmanôhara and Sâhityavidyâdhara. Verses 122 to 130 of canto 4 take the narrative to the point at which Janaka, mounted on the magic horse, - actually, on a Vidyâdhara (see the prose after verse 102) who had assumed the guise of a horse for the purpose, - arrived at the town of Rathanûpurachakravâla, and found, in a grove near it, a very charming temple of Jina; then comes a prose sentence, which says: -"Having seen this most excellent temple of Jina, and having circumambulated it;" then comes verse 131, which says, in expanded terms, that Sâhityavıdyâdhara entered the Jain temple in order to sing a hymn of praise to the Jina; then verse 1 of canto 5 says, similarly in expanded terms that Abhinava-Pampa entered the temple of Jina; and then the action is carried on by a prose sentence, which says: - "Thus having entered, and having adorned the central hall with the rays of light from the water-lilies that were his feet, and having faced the lord of the three worlds, bringing his hands together like a water-lily closing a bud;" and so there is introduced the prayer, beginning m verse 2, addressed by Janaka to the god. Here, the name Sâhityavidyâdhara plainly denotes, from one point of view, Janaka, as having in company with him (sahitya) the Vidyadhara in the guise of the horse, and, from the other point of view, Abhinava-Pampa, as being a very demigod or master of learning (vidyddhara) in literary composition (sahitya). And thus the author here brought himself distinctly into the action of the narrative, by identifying himself, through the appellation Sahityavidyadhara, with the hero of this part of it. Again, verse 138 of canto 1 brings an earlier part of the narrative to the point at which, — two sons, Vijayabâhu and Puramdara, having been born to Surendramanyu, son of Vijayaratha, — the latter, Vijayaratha, having thus "three eyes," had made to bow down to himself all the three worlds, the desires of which, directed towards himself, were multiplied to a three-fold extent; and verse 139 recites that, having given to the Earth the gratification of all her desires, - with the goddess Speech displaying herself as the flamingo on the water-lily that was his mouth, and with his Fame reaching so far and wide as for what is to be expressed by them, and of the use of qualificative expressions with what is to be qualified by them and of the employment of metaphors, had thrown into the shade even Kalidasa; in verse 3, he has spoken of himself,

for what is to be expressed by them, and of the use of qualineative expressions with what is to be qualified by them and of the employment of metaphors, had thrown into the shade even Kâlidâsa; in verse 3, he has spoken of himself, again as Kavirâjahanisa, as "the only man on earth" who knew how to speak (compose) with elegance and sweetness; and in verse 249, given to illustrate a certain metre, he has mentioned himself as Någavarma, and has described himself as matching the gods Brahman, Indra, and Vishnu in his possession of surpassingly excellent speech and other attributes, and as not having any match (apart from them).

For some Sanskrit verses of the same class, attributed to Samantabhadra and Akalanka, reference may be made to Dr. Hultzsch's translation of the Sravana-Belgola epitaph of Mallishena; Ep. Ind. Vol. III. p. 199, verse 8, p. 200 f., verses 21 to 23.

We find a tendency towards this southern habit of bombastic self-praise in even the Aihole inscription of A. D. 634-35; Ravikîrti, the composer of that record, has therein described himself as having "by his poetic skill "attained to the fame of Kâlıdâsa and of Bhâravi;" see Ep. Ind Vol. VI. p. 12, verse 37.

The habit contrasts remarkably with the modesty of the illustrious poet Kâlidâsa himself, who, in the second verse of his Raghuvamia, has intimated that he felt at least considerable doubt whether he could do justice to the great topic that he then had in hand, the history of the Solar Race.

<sup>16</sup> See, for instance, page 230 above, note 4.

to become ornaments over the tusks of the guardian elephants of the distant regions, 11 and with the title Jagajjanakanthabhûshana, "onament of the throats of mankind," having become his own title, descriptive of his attributes, — Vijayaratha shone out as Kavitâmanôhara; verse 1 of canto 2 says that Abhinava-Pampa became famous, having caused Fortune to abound excessively in liberality, and Speech in the display of gentleness, and Fame in promoting the welfare of the Jain scriptures; and the action is then taken up again by a prose sentence, which says: — "When that same king Vijayaratha was, on a certain day, holding a public darbâr; at that time;" and so there is introduced verse 2, which proceeds to narrate that there came in hurriedly a doorkeeper, and so on. Here, from one point of view, the appellation Kavitâmanôhara certainly means "he who charms the mind with his poetry," and denotes the poet; while, from another point of view, it must in some way or another have such a meaning that it denotes also Vijayaratha. And thus, at this point again, though not in so dramatic a fashion, the author has certainly again introduced himself into the action of the narrative, by identifying himself with the hero of this part of it through the appellation Kavitâmanôhara.

In these two passages of the Pampa-Ramdyana, and in all the similar ones, the author of that work has distinctly referred to himself, and not to any god named after himself. In not one of them is there to be found, nor can I detect anywhere else, the slightest shadow of a basis in fact for the assertion, made by the editor of the Kavirajamarga, that Abbinava-Pampa, in his Pampa-Ramdyana, transferred his own titles to a god whose aid he invoked. And there is not the slightest shadow of a basis in fact for the editor's assertion, or suggestion, that, in the first two verses of the Kavirajamarga, Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I., as the (alleged) author of the work, praised a god mentioned, after himself, by the names of Nipatunga, Nîtinirantara, Kritakrityamalla, Vîranîrâyana, (and Atisayadhavala). Those two verses embody requests made by the author of the work. The first of them prays for the welfare of a person, mentioned as Nripatunga and Nîtinirantara, whom he has marked as a person of high rank and has most distinctly indicated as his patron. In the second of them he has asked a person, whom he has mentioned as Atisayadhavala, Vîranârâyana, and Kritakrityamalla, to inspire him with ability to perform the task lying before him. And, even apart from the colophons, the first of these two verses is sufficient to prove that the author of the work was not Nripatunga.

11 The original says, — tanna kîrtti diggaja-radanakke kîrttımukhav=âge, — "with his own fame becoming a kirtimukha to the tusk(s) of the region-elephant(s)." In dictionaries, I can find the word kirtimukha in only Molesworth and Candy's Marâthî Dictionary, where it is given as meaning an ornamental head of a rōkshasa carved over the doors of temples dedicated to Siva, Ganapati, &c. But such decorations are not confined to the doors of temples. And the purport of the text seems to be that Vijayaratba's fame became ornaments on the lintels of the doors of the stalls of the elephants, where the elephants were standing with their heads and tusks projecting out through the doors.

In Burgess and Cousens' Architectural Antiquities of Northern Gujirat (Archæological Survey of Western India, Vol. IX.), 1903, p. 25 f., it seems to be indicated that the kirimukha is rather to be found in the lower courses of buildings and on the thresholds of doors; and an instance of the ornament on the threshold of a shrine may in fact be seen in Archæol. Surv. West. India, Vol. II. Plate 61, the illustration on the right hand, where it seems to be rather curiously combined with part of the Buddhist triratna-symbol. But Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples of India, 1880, p. 506 f., describes it as a grinning face in the centre of a tirana, and so tends to agree with the Marâthî Dictionary which places it on the tops of doors.

Burgess and Cousens have referred (loc. cit.) to the  $Padmapur\hat{o}na$ , as purporting to account for the architectural kirtimukha by reciting that Kîrtimukha was the name given to a certain demon, created by Siva, who at the god's command devoured himself, leaving only his head.

12 It may be said that the various attributes, — the power of satisfying all the desires of the Earth, and the possession of Speech and Fame, — belong both to poets and to kings: and that thus, as a poet is certainly to be styled Kavitâmanôhara, a king may be spoken of by that same appellation—And, underlying the whole comparison, there seems to be the idea, used in the verse Rachitâ sitapata-gurunâ, &c., given on page 199 above, that a necklace is an ornament on the throat, and poetry is an ornament in the throat. But it would seem that we ought to find two distinct meanings for kavitâ here, as for sâhitya in the other case. And I am inclined to think that, in the case of the king, Kavitâmanôhara may have been intended to mean "he who charms the mind by his state of being Ka, — Kapithabhûshana (in the title Jagajjanakanthabhûshana; see above), and Vi, — Vijayaratha; compare, in the Kirâtârjuniya, 1, 24, tavâbhiāhânât, which means from one point of view "at (the mention of) thy name," and from another "at (the mention of the spell with) the names Ta, — Târkshya, and Va, — Vâsuki."

We look next to see what other notices there may be, in the body of the work, of the personal appellations presented in the two opening verses, and what may be the purport of any such notices.

There are the following other allusions to Nripatunga. In chapter 1, verses 44, 146. chapter 2, verses 2, 43, 98, 105, and chapter 3, verses 98, 107, 207, 230, we have references to the method (krama), the path or style (marga), and the opinion (mata) of Nripatunga, and statements that such and such things are, or are to be declared or settled, in accordance with that method. &c. Three of these passages have been cited by the editor in his Introduction. Two of these, - verses 98 and 203 of chapter 3, - have been sufficiently noticed on page 259 above. The third is verse 105 of chapter 2, in which we have the words, — niratiśay-ânubhâva-bhavan≃appa mahâ-Nripatungadêvan=âdarole pêlda mârgga-gatıyim, - "according to the course of style very kindly (or encouragingly) declared by the great Nripatungadêva, who stands out with an authority which The others, likewise, are all complimentary to Nripatunga. Miscellaneous references to Nripatunga are as follows. In verse 42 of chapter 2, the text of which is given for another purpose on page 272 below, it is said that: - " Nripatungadeva, who displays excessively pure fame, (and) to whom the entire mass of (his) enemies has bowed down, has further always borne with grace the possession of a widely spread glory (or good fortune)." And, in verses 219 and 224 of chapter 3, mention is made, by the word sabhasada, of "members of the assembly or court of Nripatunga."

There are complimentary allusions to Nitinirantara in verse 147 of chapter 1 and verse 99 of chapter 2. And verse 148 of chapter 1 expressly cites, — Nitinirantara-krama, — "the method of Nitinirantara."

There are the following other allusions to Atisayadhavala. In chapter 1, verse 24. chapter 2, verses 2, 53, 151, and chapter 3, verses 11, 106, we have references to the method (krama), the path or style (marga), the opinion (mata), and the teaching (upadésa), of Atisayadhavala, and statements that such and such things are, or are to be declared or settled, in accordance with that method, &c. Four of these passages have been cited by the editor in his introduction. Two of these, - verses 11 and 106 of chapter 3, - have been sufficiently noticed on page 259 above. The third is in verse 24 of chapter 1, from which we, like the editor. need quote here only the words. - Atiśayadhaval-ôkta-kramade, - "according to the method declared by Atisayadhavala." And the fourth is in verse 53 of chapter 2, where we have the statement, - Atiśayadhaval-ôkti-kramadin=aripuvem, - "I will make known (a certain matter) according to the method of expression of Atisayadhavala." Other allusions to Atisayadhavala are as follows. In verse 5 of chapter 1, mention is made, by the word sabhasada, of "members of the assembly or court of Atisayadhavala;" and they are referred to as people who would shew reverence to anyone displaying good intimacy with the usages of the best poets. In verse 147 of chapter 1, mention is made of, — Atiśayadhavaļ-ôrvvip-ôdit-âļamkriti, — " the embellishments declared by (or sprung from) king Atisayadhavala;" with which expression we have to compare the point that Atisayadhavala is spoken of as a king (dharddhipa) in also verse 11 of chapter 3 (see page 259 above). And, in verse 27 of chapter 2, we have the expression, --- endan=Atisayadhavalam, - "Atisayadhavala has said (such and such a thing)."

There are the following other allusions to Kritakrityamalla, presenting this name, with the ending vallabha, 13 as Kritakrityamallavallabha, "the Vallabha who is the wrestler, or the most excellent, of those who have done their duty." Verse 61 of chapter 1 specifies four things as faults in literary composition, — Kritakrityamallavallabha-matadim, — "according to the opinion of Kritakrityamallavallabha." And verse 28 of chapter 2, the text of which is given for another purpose on page 272 below, introduces the subject of prasa or alliteration, and says: — "According to the views of Kritakrityamallavallabha, the expansion of it (that is, the treatment of this topic) is in this manner (as follows)." As will be seen when we come to consider this verse in detail,

it was probably from the original of it that there was taken the idea of the appellation Kritakritya-malla.

And there is another allusion to Vîranârâyana in verse 180 of chapter 3, where the sabhângana or 'yard of the assembly or court' of Vîranârâyana is likened to the sky, studded with stars, because there were scattered about in it so many pearls from the broken strings of pearls of the enemies who there bowed down before h.m.

In tracing out the above allusions, we find references of much the same kind to two other names. One is Naralôkachandra: in verse 23 of chapter 1, we are introduced to the two things which constitute the substance of poetry, — Naralôkachandra-matadim, — "according to the opinion of Naralôkachandra;" and, in verse 180 of chapter 3, the mandira or 'stable' of Naralôkachandra is described as being always in a state of mire from the streams of rut flowing from the captured elephants of hostile kings. And the other is Nityamallavallabha; verse 11 of chapter 2 introduces a certain topic, — Nityamallavallabha-matadim, — "according to the opinion of Nityamallavallabha."

And we find mention made of one other name, Amoghavarsha, which is perhaps of more importance than any of the others, except Atásayadhavala. Verse 1 of chapter 3, the title of which is specified in its colophon as arthdlankdra, runs: — Srî-vidit-ârtthâlamkâr-âvaliyam vividhabhêla-v.bhav-âspadamam bhâvisi besasidan-akhila-dharâ-vallabhan-int-Amoghavarsha-nṛipên-dram: — "Having thought over the famous and well known series of embellishments of sense, which is a receptacle of the display of various kinds of distinctions, the great king Amoghavarsha, the favourite of the whole world, commanded (the treatment of it) thus (as follows)." And verse 217 of the same chapter runs: — Intu mikka varṇṇanegal samtatam=ond=âgi pêlda kâvyam dhareyol samtata kedade nilkum-â-kalpântam-baram-Amoghavarsha-yaśam-bol: — "The poetry thus declared, always accompanied by descriptions of surpassing excellence, shall endure in the world to the very end of the æon, without any break of continuity, like the fame of Amoghavarsha."

In respect of these passages in the body of the work, there are the following observations to be made. The references to the method, style, opinions, and teaching of the persons or person whose names are mentioned, would, according to western practice, suffice to shew that the work was composed by someone else. They might, however, if there were nothing to the contrary, be otherwise interpreted in accordance with a custom, prevalent among some Hindû authors, of introducing their own names in the third person, not only in introductory passages reciting their pedigrees and in colophons, but also in other parts of their works. And with a particular amount of plausibility might such an interpretation be placed on the expression "Atisayadhavala has said (such and such a thing)," in verse 27 of chapter 2. But it would be difficult, to say the least, to reconcile with such an interpretation the statement, in verse 53 of chapter 2: — "I will make known (a certain matter)

<sup>14</sup> Bhâvisu is from the Sanskrit bhâva, with the Kanarese verbal affix isu. It is given in the Rev. Dr. Kittel's Kannada-English Dictionary as meaning (1) to occur, to appear; (2) to conceive, imagine, fancy, suppose; to think, consider; to observe, to know; to have in mind, think of, meditate on; to treat with respect. Besasu is formed in the same way from besa, which is treated as a tadbhava-corruption of ridha, like besana = vidhâna. Besasu is explained as meaning — to order, command, tell; to declare, communicate; to request; to grant. In the commentary on Sablamanidarpana, sûtra 3, besasu is explained by nirûpisu, 'to order, command, tell; to make known, to tell; to define;' the releandu besase of the sûtra is explained by hêleendu nirûpise, ''on ordering (me) to relate.''

<sup>16</sup> There is a rather curious instance of this, if the text is authentic, in the Chhandimbudhi of the earlier Någavarma, who, by the way, in addition to mentioning himself as Någavarma in verses 27, 121, 173, 198, 229, 243, and 249, happens to have used the expression Någavarmana matadim, "according to the opinion of Någavarman," in verse 229, and perhaps Någavarmana matamgalim in verse 246. By his opening and concluding verses, Någavarma has shewn that he had also the appellation Kaviråjahamsa. And verse 194 claims that the Mallikamåle metre (otherwise known as Mattakôkila, see Dr. Kittel's Introd. p. 22) was invented by Kaviråjahamsa, that is by Någavarma. But, whereas the Någavarma in question flourished about the close of the tenth century A. D. (see note 4 on page 197 above), that metre is found in an epigraphic record (Inscriptions at Sravara-Belgola, No. 17, Bhadratâhu-sa-Chandragupto, \$\psi\_c\$), which was engraved very closely about A. D. 800. It is to be presumed that the explanation may be that, like apparently various other verses in the Chhandômbudhi, this verse 194 is an interpolation.

according to the method of expression of Atiśayadhavala." This statement is the one in respect of which the editor, who recognised the identity of Atiśayadhavala with Nṛipatuṅga, has said (Introd. p. 2) that it "cannot be so satisfactorily explained" as the colophons, which admittedly "are apt to "lead one into the belief that Nṛipatuṅga may not have been the real author of the work," can, according to him, be explained away. And he has said that this passage "is calculated to give one "the impression that the writer of the work was different from Nṛipatuṅga." In reality, of course, it contains an unmistakable intimation that the author of the work was not Atiśayadhavala, but was someone else who was endorsing and presenting views attributed by him to Atiśayadhavala. However, all the various allusions to the method, style, opinions, and teaching of Nṛipatuṅga, Atiśayadhavala, &c., have, of course, to be interpreted in accordance with any specific information that we can find elsewhere. Aud, in the colophons, we have the plainest possible intimation that the author of the work was at any rate not Nṛipatuṅga. And the colophons explain, in the clearest manner, the real nature of the various references in the body of the work to the method, style, opinions, and teaching of Nṛipatuṅga, Atiśayadhavala, &c.

Not in any of the above-mentioned passages is there any statement that Nripatunga, Atisayadhavala, and Amôghavarsha were one and the same person. The similar nature of the complimentary allusions made by the author of the work in connection with the three names, may be suggestive that those allusions all refer to one individual. But it is not conclusive on that point. We note, however, that Nripatunga is indicated as a king, by the mention of sabhasadar or 'members of his assembly or court.' We also note that, in addition to being indicated as a king in that same way, Atisayadhavala is expressly marked as a king, by the words urvipa and dharddhiya. And we note that Amôghavarsha is expressly marked as a king by the epithets akhiladharavallabha and nripendra. Now, like various other secondary names, the appellations Nripatunga and Amôghavarsha were by no means confined to one person. We know, from the epigraphic records, that they both belonged to Kakka II., the last Rashtrakûţa king of Malkhêd. He had also the appellation Vîranârâyana. And, if we were guided by simply these three indications, we might select him as the patron of the author of the Kavirajamarga. The name, however, which determines the individualisation of the author's patron, is Atisayadhavala. This appellation has been established in connection with only the Rashtrakuta king Amoghavarsha I.; and it is established by, among published records, the Strûr and Nîlgund inscriptions of A. D. 866, without which the identity of the author's patron could not have been determined.16 These two records of the time of this king himself establish for him the appellations Nripatunga, Amôghavarsha, and Atisayadhavala, and also Lakshmivallabha. Later records allot to him the appellation Vîranârâyaṇa.17 He had a long and famous reign. And his kingdom included that part of Western India to which belonged the language, Kanarese, in a suitably archaic form of which the Kavirajamarga was written. And thus, though the work does not include a date, and though there is not anything in it specifying the dynasty or family to which the author's patron belonged, we do not hesitate to decide, on the basis of the allusions to Atisayadhavala, that the patron of the author of the Kavirajamarga was the Rashtrakuta king Nripatunga-Atisayadhavala-Amôghavarsha I., and that the work was composed in the period A. D. 814-15 to 877-78. The work shews that Amôghavarsha I. actually had, during his life, the appellation Vîranârâyana, which at present has been found connected with him in only records of later times. And it tends to establish for him the other formal appellations of certainly Nîtinirantara and Kr.takrityamalla, and most probably Naralókachandra and Nityamallavallabha. None of these last four appellations, however, has as yet been found in epigraphic records. And it is practically certain that one of them, Kritakrityamalla, was simply an invention of the author, made in the manner indicated on page 273 blow. As such, perhaps it may have been confined, and the others like it, to this particular work.

<sup>16</sup> For the Sirûr record, see Vol. XII. above, p. 218, and the revised version in Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 202. For the Nilgund record, see Ep. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 102.
17 On this and the preceding point, see Ep. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 174 ff.

So far, we have made it clear that Nripatunga-Amoghavarsha I. was not the author of the Kavirajamarga, but was the patron of the author of it. Unless, however, we are to assume that simply an empty compliment was paid to him by a mere parasite, he did play a part of some kind in the composition of it. The author has done more than simply refer to his views as authoritative on various details. In chapter 1, after the two opening verses which have been explained on page 261 above, and after the prayers in verses 3 and 4 that the goddess Sarasvatî and the great (earlier) poets would help him, and after the reference in verse 5 to the courtiers of Atisavadhavala-(Amôghavarsha I.) as people who would pay honour to anyone well versed in the usages of the best poets, the author has proceeded to indicate the alomkara of kavya, or the embellishment of poetical composition, as his topic. After some remarks of a general kind, he has in verse 22 explained that kavya includes the arrangement of discriminative words or sounds, and embellishment by means of the display of various meanings. Then in verse 23 he has said that, "according to the opinion of Naralôkachandra-(Amôghavarsha I.)," the substance of kâvya is two-fold. namely, the sarira or bodily form in which it becomes manifest (meaning, as we learn from the Sanskrit original. the paddvali, or 'series of words, the text'), and the paramalainkara or choice embellishments with which it is adorned, just as a man has a body and the fine ornaments which decorate it.18 In verse 24 he has said that, "according to the method declared by Atisayadhavala-(Amôghavarsha I.)," the śarira takes two shapes, namely, gadya or 'ornate or rhythmic prose,' and padya or 'verse.'19 He has followed this up by some special remarks about gadya in verses 25 to 29, and about padya in verses 30 to 35, mentioning certain authors and works in each division, both in Sanskrit (Sanskrita) and in Kanarese (Kannada). He has then introduced in verses 36 to 42 a short disquisition on the various languages, which he has named Samskrita and Sakkada, Pâgada (Prâkrit), and Kannada, mentioning also Pala-Gannada (Ancient Kanarese) in subsequent verses. And it is thus that, starting with the references to Amôghavarsha I. as Naralôkachandra and Atisayadhavala, le has led up to the special subject of this chapter, the exposition of those things which are faults and those which are not faults, which commences with the staten ent, in verse 43, that ever so small a fault will spoil the whole of a poetical work, "just as a speck of dirt, which has found a place on it, will spoil a flirting rolling eye." In chapter 2, after a statement in verse 1 that the characteristics which adorn the śarira are the niratiśayál-nikúras (= paramálankáras), known to the ancient poets, the author has recited in verse 2 that, ".n the reckoning of the manner of the method of investigation of the handsome and glorious Nripatuinga-(Amôghavarsha I.)," the paramálamkara has two divisions, namely, sabda or 'sound,' and artha or 'sense.' And it is thus that he has introduced his treatment, commencing in verse 3, of the special subject of this chapter, which is śabddlamkdra or the embellishment of sound. In chapter 3, the subject of which is arthallamkara or the embellishment of sense (by poetical figures, &c), the author has started the topic by saying at the very outset, in verse 1, that "the great king Amôghavarsha thought over the famous and well known series of embellishments of sense, and commanded (the treatment of it)" in the manner which the author then followed. This last statement perhaps indicates a closer connection of Amôghavarsha I. with this chapter, than with the rest of the work. And it might, with but a slight stretching of the meaning of words, be interpreted as implying that Amôghavarsha I. actually dictated this chapter. But it is clear that, whether as a mere compliment or not, the author has sought to represent his patron, not simply as an ordinary patron, or as a mere authority whose views were being cited as a guide, but as the inspirer of the whole work. And it was, no doubt, a recognition of that intention, coupled with a noticing of the prominent place given in the colophons to the name Nripatuiga which is mentioned so conspicuously in the opening verse in addition to being introduced in various other passages, that led Bhattakalanka, in the seventeenth century, to speak of the work as Nṛipatungagrantha, "the book of Nripatunga," in the passage, in the Karndiakaśabdanuśdsana, which has been given on page 198 above and will be referred to again on page 278 below.

<sup>18</sup> Sanskrit scholars will recognise the ultimate source of all this matter. It is not within the scope of my Note to go into that.

<sup>19</sup> He has omitted the third shape, misra, the dramas, &c., as if it did not exist in Kanarese.

We may pass over pages 4 to 10 of the editor's Introduction to his so-called Nripatinga's Kavirdyamdrga, where he claims to have "placed before the reader all the information concerning "Nripatinga, which recent research has made accessible to us." The matter there set out has no connection with the subject of the present Note; and all that is necessary about it, has been said by me elsewhere, in some brief remarks in the Ep. Ind. Vol. VI. p. 197, note 6.20 We pass on to points which the editor has missed altogether; namely, the name of the real author of the work, the particular earlier authority which he used as the basis as the basis of his work, and the way in which he proceeded in composing his work.

The author of this Kavirājamārga has mentioned and indicated a fairly large number of writers earlier than himself. In verse 26 of chapter 1, he has referred to the Harshacharita and Kādambarī (of Bāṇa) as being the very heart or core (hridaya) of good, pure, and even Sanskrit (sad-amala-sama-Sanskrita), in the division of gadya or ornate or rhythmic prose. In verse 29, he has mentioned Vimala, Udaya, — (or, possibly, Vimalôdaya), — Nāgārjuna, Jayabandhu, Durvinîta. and "others" (not specified by name), as having "in this order (î kramado!)" attained fame in gadya; meaning, apparently, Kanarese gadya. In verse 31, he has mentioned Guṇasûri, Nārâyaṇa, Bhâravi, Kâlidâsa, Māgha, and "others" (not specified by name), as having written mahākāvyas or great classical poems, in the department of padya or verse. And, in verse 33, — under apparently the same department of padya, but of Kanarese padya, — he has referred to the ādya-kāvya or earlier poetry of "the supreme Srîvijaya, Kavîśvara, — or Srîvijaya, the Kavîsvara or lord of poets, — Paṇditachandra, la Lôkapâla, and others (not specified by name)," and has stated that the aim of it was always the contrivance of an unsurpassed expansion of the topic.

The important point is the reference to parama-Srîvijaya, "the supreme Srîvijaya." The editor has not omitted to notice this mention of Srîvijaya (Introd. p. 11). And he has told us that "Srîvijaya is named by Kêśirâja and Maṅgarasa and is mentioned in an inscription at Sravaṇa-"Belgola." But in a footnote, in drawing attention to the occurrence of the name Srîvijaya in also verse 149 of chapter 1, verse 153 of chapter 2, and verse 236 of chapter 3, of the Kavirâjamârga, he has said that the name "may also be a title of Nṛipatuṅga;" that is, according to his representation, of Amôghavarsha I. as the author of the work. And he has said that "this view is "correct if Durgasimha means the Kavirâjamârga when he speaks of Srîvijayara Kavimârgam." These last two words indicate a work known as "the Kavimârga of Srîvijaya." And, for Durgasimha's mention of such a work, the editor has referred us to "Pañchatantra in Karṇâtaka-kâvyamañjari, Nov. 1896." This latter work is not accessible to me; and I am, therefore, not able to say what Durgasimha may have said about Srîvijaya's Kavimârga.

In citing this mention by Durgasimha of the Kavirajamarga of Srivijaya, the editor seems to have had the real facts regarding the Kavirajamarga within reach. But either he was unable to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> It must, however, be noted that Mr. R. Narasimhachar has pointed out (Kûvyûvalûkanam, Introd. p. 50, note 2) that Mr. K. B. Pathak, in finding in verse 620 of the Kûvyûvalûkana a reference to "Dantiga, the Mêru of the Battas or Râshtrakûtas" (Kavirûjamûrga, Introd. p. 4, and Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. Vol. XX. p. 25), made the mistake of taking as a nominative the copulative dative dantigam of danti, 'an elephant;' and, now that we have the whole verse for reference, we can see that that is certainly the case. Accordingly, the latter part of my note 6 in Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 218 has to be cancelled.

This verse 620 of the Kûvyûvalôkana, we now find, presents another instance of the name Ratta being written with the Drâvidian r, Ratta, on which point see Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. p. 219.

<sup>21</sup> But this may be yet another appellation of Śrîvijaya; or it may qualify Lôkapâla.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> The editor, however, has not told us what Kêśirâja and Mangarasa said, in naming Śrīvijaya. — Regarding Kêśirâja, see page 277 below. — Mangarasa has been placed by Mr. Rice about A. D. 1240; see Karnata-kasabdanuśasanam, Introd. p. 37.

The Śravana-Belgola inscription has been edited, and very fully dealt with, by Dr. Hultzsch. And reference may be made to his translation of verses 45, 46, in Ep. Ind. Vol. III. p. 204, for the allusion in it to Śrîvijaya. But it is not at all certain that that Śrîvijaya, whom the record marks as a pontiff and mentions between Vâdırâja and Kamalabhadra, is the one who is spoken of in the Kavirājamārga. However, Dr. Hultzsch has remarked (loc. cit. p. 185) that the account given in the inscription "is not a connected and complete account, and cannot "even be proved to be in strictly chronological order."

rollow up the clue, or else he had not sufficient independence to present the results to which it leads. We will do what he ought to have done, namely, exhibit fully the other three passages of the Kavirājamārga, in which mention is made of Śrīvijaya.

Verse 149 of chapter 1, the last verse of that chapter, runs: — Sakaj-âlâpa-kalâ-kalâpa-kathita-vyâvrıttiyol kûdi chitrakaram-bol para-bhaga-bhava-vilasad-varnna-kram-avrittiyam I prakatam-mâd-ire pêlda chıtra-kritiyam vyâvarnnisuttum kaviprakaram Srîvijaya-prabhûtaman=idam kai-kolvud=î mâlkeyim II 1, 149.

Translation: - "Receiving with praise (this) vividly descriptive work (literally, picture-work) which (I have) declared in such a way, combining a selection of the sayings of the whole art of speech, as to display the use of the series of the letters of the alphabet which gleam by (their) nature of superior ment, just as the painter of a picture displays the use of the series of colours which gleam by (their) nature of superior merit, the multitude of poets will accept this product of Srîvijaya in this (new) guise (literally, by this doing, performance, or manner)."

The last verse, 153, of chapter 2 runs: — Bhâvısi śabda-tattva-samaya-sthitiyam kurit=ond=aśêsha-bhâshâ-vishay-ôktiyam bagedu nôḍi purâṇa-kaviprabhu-prayô- I g-âvilasad-gun-ôdayaman=âyd=avarim samed=ondu kàvyadim Srîvijaya-prabhûta-mudamam tanag=âgisidom Kavîsvaram II 2, 153.

Translation: - "Having thought over the established condition of the conventional settlement of the essential nature of sounds, (and) having given attention to (that) one  $(thing)^{23}$  expression which is the object of all language, (and) having considered and seen the development of the good qualities which shine24 in the usage of ancient great poets, (and) having culled from them, (and) having carried out (the result) by (this) one poetical composition, Kavisvara has created for himself a joy which took its source from Srivijaya."25

And the concluding verse of the whole work, verse 236 of chapter 3, runs: -Nıravady-ânvayan=udgham=uddhata-ma[hâ-kshî]râbdhi-dindîra-pânduram=âkrânta-si(su)śaila-sâgara-dhar-âśâchakravâl-âmbaram [ parama-Srîvijaya-prabhûti-ja-yaśa[m] strî-bâla-vṛiddh-âbitam paramânandita-lôkam=oppe nele-golg=â-chandra-târam-baram II 3, 236.

Translation: - "Let the fame which was born from the source that was the supreme Srivijaya, — which is unlimited (and) imperishable (?); 26 which is the model (of what all fame ought to be), which is white like the bones of the cuttle-fish of the agitated great ocean of milk; (and) which has pervaded the beautiful mountains, the seas, the earth, the whole horizon, and the sky, - firmly endure, with the approbation of the supremely happy (whole) world, comprising women and children and old men, as long as the moon and stars shall last!"

By these three verses, the author of the work has most distinctly acknowledged that this Kavirājamārga was based on an earlier work by an author named Srīvijaya. In all three

<sup>23</sup> The exact force of the word ondu here is not clear; however, it does not affect the real point of the verse.

<sup>24</sup> The word avilasat seems to have been used here for the ordinary word vilasat for the sake of the metre. 25 We might render the text as meaning "Kaviśvara made to belong to himself the great joy of Śrivijaya (that is, the great joy which Srîvijaya felt in his own work)." I have preferred to present a translation which assigns to prabhûta a meaning which agrees exactly with the meaning that that word plainly has in verse 149 of chapter 1, and also with the meaning that is to be attached to probbati in verse 236 of chapter 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> There seems to be something wrong with the published text, which presents a nominative or genitive singular masculine of a compound ending with anraya, instead of a nom. sing. neuter in apposition with yasam. It is difficult to recognise anything appropriate in a description of the fame as niravady-anvaya, "of unblamable lineage," which would result from obtaining the nom. sing. neuter by simply altering the n into m. And it hardly seems permissible to take the genitive naravady anvayana, and understand something like "of (me who am of) I suspect that a better manuscript would shew niravadhy-avyayam, which I have selected for my translation.

of them, he has very plainly expressed his appreciation of the merits of Srîvijaya. And, in the first of them, he has explicitly stated that his own work was simply the work of Srîvijaya in a new guise. It can hardly be doubted that the Srîvijaya thus referred to is "the supreme Srîvijaya" who is mentioned as an earlier poet in verse 33 of chapter 1 (see page 269 above), and that the work thus dealt with was the Kavimarga of Srîvijaya, which, according to the editor, is mentioned by the writer Durgasimha (see page 269 above), who appears to have been a contemporary of the Western Châlukya king Perma-Jagadêkamalla II. (A. D. 1138-39 to 1149).

For the rest, in verse 153 of chapter 2, the author of this Kavirajamarga has distinctly introduced himself to us by the appellation of Kavisvara. This appellation, which simply means 'lord of poets,' was, of course, not his personal name but only a secondary designation. It was plainly adopted in imitation of the earlier Kavisvara who is mentioned in verse 33 of chapter 1. And it seems very probable that it was a secondary appellation of Srīvijaya himself, whose work was thus presented in a new guise in the Kavirājamārga. The text of the verse mentioned above, — parama-Srīvijaya-Kavīśvara-Paṇḍitachandra-Lôkapâl-âdigalâ, — fully permits of our understanding Kavīśvara as a secondary name of Srīvijaya, instead of as the name of a separate individual. And, whereas Kêśirâja has in verse 5 of the preface to his Sabdamaṇidarpaṇa mentioned Srīvijaya (see page 277 below), but not any Kavīśvara, in the list of authors whose good style it was his aim to follow, in sûtra 169 he has spoken of a certain usage as being, — Kavīśvara-matadin, — "according to the opinion of Kavīšvara."

We come now to the subject of certain passages in the Kavirajamarga, which are alleged to have been introduced as quotations in other works. The examination of them is interesting, because they shew the way in which Kavisvara proceeded in presenting the work of Srivijaya in its new guise; namely, not by quoting it wholesale, but by making certain alterations, of which some were trivial, but others are decidedly important and instructive.

The editor has said (Introd. p. 1) that "most of the verses, in which Nripatunga speaks of "prâsa, are quoted in the Chhandômbudhi."<sup>27</sup> He has specified (*ibid.* note 2) verses 28 to 48 of chapter 2, and verses 232, 233 — (by mistake for 231, 232) — of chapter 3, of the Kavirdjamdrga. He has made it clear that by the Chhandômbudhi he means the work on Kanarese prosody, entitled Chhandômbudhi and Chhandômburâsi in its colophons, of the earlier Nagavarma, in respect of whom Mr. R. Narasimhachar has shewn that he flourished at the close of the tenth century A. D.<sup>23</sup> And he has referred us to pages 17 to 21 of the Rev. Dr. Kittel's edition of that work. This was published at Mangalore, in 1875. And, examining the work in that edition, we find that verses 50 to 65 of it answer, more or less closely, to verses 28, 29, 31 to 33, and 35 to 43, of chapter 2, and verses 231 and 232 of chapter 3, of the Kavirdjamdrga; verses 30 and 34 of chapter 2 of the Kavirdjamdrga are not found there.

Now, it is to be remarked that it is not certain that verses 50 to 65 of the *Chhandômbudhi* belong to the real version of that work at all. They occur in the treatment of *prása* or alliteration, which commences with verse 41 and ends with verse 66. Dr. Kittel arrived at the conclusion that "Nâgavarma did not include the subject of alliterations in his prosody." And it is, therefore, doubtful, whether we are dealing with Nâgavarma himself, or with someone who made

<sup>27</sup> To this he has attached the remark: — "That these verses cannot have been composed by Någavarmå and "that they must have been borrowed from an older author is pretty clear to any one who remembers the fact that "the author of the Chhandômbudhi addresses his verses to his wife." How that conclusion is to be deduced from the stated fact, which is a fact, has not been made evident. But the editor probably had in view the point that, whereas in verse 22 of the Chhandômbudhi the author of that work has represented himself as expounding the subject of prosody to his wife, verse 65, — an illustrative stanza, commencing arasarol-elé nîm, which will be referred to again further on, and which stands in a very similar form as verse 232 of chapter 3 of the Kavirûja-mûrga, ends with the word magalé, "O daughter!"

<sup>28</sup> See note 5 on page 197 above.

<sup>29</sup> See his Nagavarma's Canarese Prosody, Introd. p. 6.

interpolations in his work. However, the question simply is, whether certain verses which we find in the *Chhandômbudhi*, whether they are original or interpolated, were taken into that work from the *Kavirâjamârga*.

We need not examine verses 29, 31 to 33, and 35 to 41, of chapter 2 of the Kavirajamarga. Two of them, namely, Kavirajamarga, chapter 2, verses 32, 35, and Chhandombudhi, verses 53, 55. stand in precisely the same form in the two works, which, however, does not prove that it was from the Kavirananga that they were taken into the Chhandambudhi, whether originally or by interpolation: and, while in the others there are differences, greater or less as the case may be, in the actual readings given in the two works, but without affecting the general meaning of the verses, that fact would not necessarily prove that they were not taken into the Chhandômbudhi from the Kawrajamarga. Nor need we examine verses 231, 232 of chapter 3 of the Kavirajamarga, which stand as verses 64, 65 in the Chhandômbudhi. Here, again, there are certain minor discrepancies, which, however, in this case also, would not necessarily prove that the verses were not taken into the Chhandômbudhi from the Kavirájamarga. But, whereas in one direction Dr. Kittel has rendered it at any rate doubtful whether verses 64, 65 belong to the real version of the Chhandômbudhi.30 in another direction Mr. R. Narasimhachar has told us that the corresponding verses, which stand as verses 231 and 232 of chapter 3, and the three verses which stand next after them, do not belong to the Kavirajamarga at all.31 And neither these two, nor the other verses in respect of which I have said that it is not necessary to examine them, are of any importance, or in any way helpful; because the originals of them did not happen to offer the facilities for adaptation of which Kaviśvara availed himself in forming the three verses which are important and instructive. The important verses are the following ones, which I present side by side for the purpose of easy comparison, marking by thick type those portions of them to which particular attention is to be directed: -

#### Kāvirājamārga of Kavīsvara.

Nuta-śabdâlamkâradol=

atiśayam=i Kannadakke satatam prâsam i Kritakrityamallavallabha-

matadind=adara prapancham=i teran=akkum || 2, 28.

Ativiśada-yaśô-vṛittam

nata-sakal-ârâtijana-vitânam mattam į vitata-śrî-sampattam

satatam<sup>32</sup> Nripatungadêvan=olavim pottam || 2, 42

## Chhandômbudhi of Nagavarma.

Nuta-śabdâlamkâradol=

atiśayam=adu Kannadakke satatam prâsam i krita-krityam=appud=ellara

matadind=adu tappe kavyam=êm sôbhipudê II p. 17, v. 50.

Ativiśada-yaśô-vrittam

nata-sakal-ârâtijana-vitânam mattam vitata-śrî-sampattam

Satamakha-sadris-ânubhâva-vibhavam bettam<sup>33</sup> II p. 20, v. 62.

<sup>50</sup> See the preceding paragraph.

<sup>31</sup> See his Kâvyâvalôkanam, Introd. p. 13, note 2. And it is at any rate obvious — (and it ought to have been so even to the editor of the Kavirâjamârga) — that, if they do belong to the Kavirâjamârga, they do not stand in their right place, which would be somewhere in chapter 2. Mr. Narasimhachar has also told us (ibid.) that verse 283 is a quotation from the Lâlâvatı of Nêmichandra, of the twelfth century A. D. And Dr. Kittel has expressed the opinion that verse 65 of the Chhandâmbudhi, — Kavirâjamârga, verse 282 of chapter 3, was taken from verse 20 of chapter 2 of the Kavijihvâbandhana (see his Nâgavarma's Canarese Prosody, p. 21, note 4, and Introd. p. 6) of îśvarakavi (see id. p. 61), whom he has referred to the beginning of the sixteenth century A. D. (ibid.), and who, as he had the title Abhmava-Kêśirâja (see Mr. Rice's Karnāṭakaśabdânuśānam, Introd. p. 41), was at any rate later than the original Kêśirâja (about A. D. 1225; see page 197 above).

The editor of the Kavirûjamûrga has said, in respect of verse 65 of the Chhandîmbudh, that "this verse which "begins with the words 'arasarol ela' is therefore not a later interpolation in the Chhandîmbudhi" (see his Introd. p. 1, note 5); namely, because the Karnûtakaśabdûnwiûsana cites it and appeals to Nipatunga as a standard authority on alankûra on these points (see page 278 below). But there is nothing in that; the Karnûtakaśabdûnwiûsana mentions Nipatunga, not in connection with the stanza in question, but in a quite separate passage.

<sup>32</sup> It would appear, from a footnote, that one of the three manuscripts used in preparing the text of the Kavirājamārya, presents the reading — Satamakha-sadriś-ânubhâva-padamam vettam.

ss We require pettam, to govern sampattam; not bettam in composition with the word ending in vibhavam.

#### Kāvirājamārga of Kavisvara.

Prâs-ânuprâs-ânta-

prâsamgal mûrum=atisayamgal prâs-â- l bhâsamgal=ulida mûrum

bhâsura-Nripatungadêva-viditakramadim || 2,43

#### Chhandômbudhi of Nagavarma.

Prâs-ânuprâs-ânta-

prâsamgaļ mûr=iv=atiśayamgaļ mattam į prâs-âbhasam mājum34

bhâsura-kamj-âyat-âkshi kêļ=adan= orevem 11 p. 21. v. 63

Now, we see at once that the editor's statement, that the above verses of the Kavirajamarga were quoted in the Chhandômbudhi, is at any rate not literally accurate. At the best, these three verses were taken from the Kavirajamarga into the Chhandômbudhi with alterations. We learn more, however, about the matter, when we examine the details of the discrepancies.

The first of these three verses recites in its first two pådas, in both versions, that, in the matter of embellishment of sound, in Kanarese the most important detail is the alliteration. The second two pådas say, in the Kaviråjamårga:—"According to the views of Kritakrityamallavallabha ("the Vallabha who is the wrestler, or the most excellent, of those who have done their duty"), the expansion of it (that is, the treatment of this topic) is in this manner (as follows)." In the Chhandômbudhi, the same two pådas say:—"According to the views of all people, it (namely, the alliteration) realises the object that is to be attained; when it is faulty, how shall poetry appear to any advantage at all?"

Now, we know that this verse, as given in the Kavirâjamârga, was certainly not adapted from the Chhandômbudhi. Kavîśvara wrote his Kavirâjamârga in the period A. D. 814-15 to 877-78. Whereas, the Nâgavarma who wrote the Chhandômbudhi flourished in the period A. D. 975 to 1000.35 And any interpolator of Nâgavarma was, naturally, not earlier than Nâgavarma himself. If there was any interchange of the verse between the Kavirâjamârga and the Chhandômbudhi, it was, of course, taken from the Kavirâjamârga into the Chhandômbudhi. But, if that was done, there is not any acceptable reason why Nâgavarma or his interpolator should vary the text, so as to suppress the name of the authority cited by Kavîsvara. On the other hand, if the verse came into both works from another source, it is easy to see how Kavîsvara may have ingeniously altered a portion of an original text, without in any way interfering with the chiet part of it, the dictum pronounced in it, so as to introduce an appellation of his patron as the authority on the topic to which the verse refers. And it may be incidentally remarked that it seems very likely that it was this particular verse, in its original form, which suggested the idea of the appellation Kritakrityamalla for Amôghavarsha I., established by adaptation of the original verse.

The second of these three verses does not pronounce or lead up to any rule. It is simply a stanza put forward to illustrate final alliteration. As it stands in the Kavirájamárga, the meaning of it is:— "Nripatungadêva, who displays excessively pure fame, (and) to whom the entire mass of (his) enemies has bowed down, has further always borne with grace the burden of the possession of a widely spread glory (or good fortune)." As it stands in the Chhandômbudh, it does not specify any individual by name; and it means:— He who displays excessively pure fame, (and) to whom the entire mass of (his) enemies has bowed down, (and) further who possesses a development of authority similar to that of Satamakha (Indra), has obtained the possession of a widely spread glory (or good fortune)." Here, if Nagavarma or his interpolator took the verse from Kaviśvara, he spoilt a very apt illustration, by substituting something altogether indeterminate in the place of words which introduced an apposite and well-known name. On the other hand, here, again, it is easy to see how very simply Kaviŝvara may have adapted a verse, not composed by himself, by altering the last line of it, without in any way spoiling the applicability of it, so as to introduce the name of his patron.

<sup>34</sup> This appears to be a conjecture, in the place of mûrum or môdam.

ss See note 5 on page 197 above.

The last of these three verses introduces, as explained by Dr. Kittel in his edition of the Chhandômbulhi, "the four kinds of alliteration of the third class, occurring along with the ten simple "alliterations (prâsa), and the successive (anuprâsa) and final one (antaprâsa)." As it stands in the Kavirâjamârga, the last pâla asserts that the matter introduced in the verse is "according to the well known method of the splendid Nripatunga." As it stands in the Chhandômbudhi, the same pâla is an address to some lady, and means: — "Listen, O thou who hast splendid long eyes resembling a water-lily!; I will declare it." Here, again, there is not any acceptable reason why, if Nâgavarma or his interpolator took the verse from Kavîsvara, he should have altered the text, so as to suppress the name of Nripatunga. And, on the other hand, here, again, it is easy to see in how simple a manner Kavîsvara may have adapted still another verse, not composed by himself, so as to name his patron as the authority for the matter stated in it.

Taking these three verses together, we can see most plainly that Någavarma or his interpolator did not either quote or adapt them from Kavísvara; but Kavísvara on the one side, and Någavarma or his interpolator on the other side, used standard verses which they took independently from some third writer. A simple comparison of the texts given on page 272 f. above is sufficient to shew that the assertion, that the versions of these verses standing in the Chhandômbudhi are quotations from the Kavirdjamdrga, is absolutely opposed to fact. And it is altogether incredible that Någavarma or his interpolator, adapting verses from the Kavirdjamdrga, should gratuitously, and in the most objectless manner, spoil them by striking out references to an authority made by appellations of which one at least, presented in two of the verses, was a well known and famous one, and by substituting words which add neither force nor beauty to the verses. There was a difference in treatment; namely, that Kavisvara adapted the original verses of the third writer, whereas Någavarma or his interpolator quoted them, and probably quoted them with absolute exactness. And those were the two different methods by which the verses standing in the Kavirdjamdrga and the Chhandômbudhi were obtained; namely, respectively by adaptation and by quotation.

There remains the point as to the source of these verses. From what Kaviśvara, the author of the Kavirdjamarga, has told us, it was certainly from the Kavimarga of Srivijaya that he adapted his verses. The earlier Nâgavarma or his interpolator may have taken the corresponding verses into the Chhandombudhi directly from that same work, the Kavimarya of Srivijaya, or indirectly by obtaining them from some other writer who had taken them from that work. On this latter point, we can only submit the following remarks for further consideration. In his introductory verse 22, Nagavarma has told us that his Chhandômbudhi or Chhandômburáśi was based to a great extent on a work by Pingala, which he seems to mention by the name of Mangalachchhandu. It seems to be uncertain whether he refers to the Sanskrit Pingala, or to the so-called Prakrit Pingala, or perhaps to both of them.<sup>36</sup> But there cannot have been obtained from either of those writers any of the Kanarese characteristics, of which the prasa or alliteration, exhibited in the Chhanlêmbudhi whether originally or by interpolation, is emphatically one. On the other hand, the Chhandômbudhi does not present any mention of the name of Srîvijaya. But verse 252 exhibits an Aupachchhandasika metre which it describes as, — Kavîśvar-ôktam, — "declared by Kavîsvara." There is no reason for thinking that this use of the name Kavîśvara is a reference by Nâgavarman to himself; his own biruda was not Kavîśvara but Kavirajahamsa. And it certainly does not carry any reference to the Kavîśvara who wrote the Kavirajamarga, which does not deal with metres. But it may eas ly denote Srivijaya; for we have seen, on page 269 above, that it is quite possible that he had the appellation Kavîśvara.

The editor has further said (Introd. p. 1) that "the Kavirâjamârga is also alluded to in the "Kâvyâvalôkana." This work is the Kâvyâvalôkana of the second Nâgavarma, who, as has

se See Dr. Kittel's Nagavarma's Canarese Prosody, Introd. p. 7.

been shewn by Mr. R. Narasimhachar in his recently published edition of it, flourished about A. D. 1150.37 The editor of the Kavirājamārga has not specified any particular passage in the Kāvyāvalôkana for this asserted allusion to the Kavirājamārga. And, as a matter of fact, it would seem that his authority for his assertion is nothing but an assertion made by Mr. Rice that the Kavirājamārga "is cited as a standard authority by Nāgavarmma in his Kāvyāvalôkana." There can, however, be no doubt that the intended reference is to verse 521 of the Kāvyāvalôkana, which does present the expression kavi-rāja-mārggado!. But, as Mr. R. Narasimhachar has told us on p. 16 of his Introduction to the Kāvyāvalôkana, the context clearly shews that the expression does not denote any particular work, but simply refers to "the path of excellent poets." Beyond that, Mr. R. Narasimhachar has said (loc. cit. p. 17 f.) that there are many striking coincidences in the Kāvirājamārga and the Kāvyāvalôkana; in respect of which, he considers, it may be presumed that verses in the Kāvyāvalôkana were suggested by verses in the Kavirājamārga, or the explanation may be "the identity of the source from which both the works have derived their ideas." But he has also told us (loc. cit. p. 16) that, in the Kāvyāvalôkana, "strange as it may appear, Nāgavarma "makes no allusion to the earlier work Kavirājamārga, nor does he quote a single verse from it."

The editor has further said (Introd. p. 1) that "Késirāja quotes three verses from the "Kavirājamārga;" and he has specified those verses (*ilid.* note 4) as 32 and 58 of chapter 1, and 7 of chapter 2. His reference to the other work is to the Kanarese grammar entitled Sabdamanidarpana of Kêsirāja, who has been placed by Mr. Rice about A. D. 1225.39 And he has referred us to the Rev. Dr. Kittel's edition of the Sabdamanidarpana, which was published at Mangalore in 1872. Here, the facts are as follows:—

In verse 32 of chapter 1 of the Kavirājamārga, Kavīsvara has mentioned, in the department of Kanarese padya, two classes of poetical composition named chhattāṇa and bedaṇḍe. His verse runs:—

Nudig-ellam sallada Kan-

nadadol chattanîmum bedandeyum=end=î- l

gadina negalteya kabbadol=

odambadam madidar=ppuratana-kavigal II 1, 32.

As an illustration to sûtra 98, of his Sabdamanidarpana, which teaches the use of the suffix ar to form, for instance, the verbal form madidar, Kesiraja has presented a stanza (see Dr. Kittel's edition, p. 121) which stands in exactly that same form, syllable for syllable, except in the use of j instead of ch, in jattanamun instead of ch attanamun.

In verse 57 of chapter 1 of the *Kavirdjamdrga*, **Kavisvara** has recited that a mixture of Sanskrit and Kanarese in compounds destroys the flavour, "just like mixing drops of buttermilk with boiling milk." In illustration of that, he has given verse 58, which runs:—

Arasu-kumâranan=âyata-

tara-kade-gaṇṇinde nôḍi keļadi-samêtam l parigata-nageyind=irddem

guru-nân-bharadindam=eragi mukha-tâvareyam 11 1, 58.

And, to shew how that verse ought to have been framed in proper language, he has followed it up by verse 59, to the same purport, which commences with narapati-tanayanan, where it presents a suitable Sanskrit word for the word arasu, and which further puts forward a correct Kanarese expression instead of the hybrid compound heladi-sametan, and appropriate Sanskrit words, in the other compounds, instead of the Kanarese kade-ganninde, nageyinde, nan, and tavareyam.

Under sûtra 80 of his Sabdamanidarpana, which defines the term sama-Samskrita as meaning pure Sanskrit crude nouns which are used in Kanarese without any alteration, Kesiraja has said that

<sup>37</sup> See note 5 on page 197 above.

<sup>89</sup> Karņāţakašabdānušāsanam, Introd. p. 36.

<sup>38</sup> Karnîtakasabdûnusâsanam, Introd. p. 24.

such words must not (as a rule) be used in composition with pure Kanarese words; and, as an instance of violation of that rule, he has used that same verse arasu-kumāranan, &c., with, however (see Dr. Kittel's edition, p. 98), the differences of gade for kade, irdam for irddem, and nāṇ-ābharadin for nāṇ-bharadindam.

In opening the topic of sabdālanhkāra or embellishment of sound by rhymes, &c., Kavīšvara, has said, in verse 4 of chapter 2 of his Kavirājamārga, that soft and flexible words should be used, exactly according to their appropriateness, in order to avoid any such effect as "mixing together rice in its husk and curds;" in verse 5, that, even though the meaning may not be spoilt, the use of unsuitable words would be like "stringing together pearls and pepper-corns; 40 and, in verse 6, that the use of ponderous words, pressing upon light ones that precede them, would have the same unhappy effect as "placing a heavy burden on the head of a child." And, as an instance of bad style (dūshya), exhibiting faults such as those against which he has warned his readers, he has given verse 7, which runs:—

Barısi kshitipatiyam sayıt-irisi priya-kuśala-vârtteyam besa-gondu ı sthiram-irddu prabhu nudıye prarûdha-mudan=âdan=âtan=embudu dûshyam ॥ 2, 7.

And, to shew how the meaning of that verse ought to have been expressed in good style (marga), he has followed it up by verse 8, which commences kshitipatiyam barisi, and runs to practically the same purport as verse 7, except that it introduces an epithet jagan-nuta, which is not represented in verse 7.

Sûtra 59 of the Sabdamanidarpana, as explained by Dr. Kittel (see his edition, p. 71, and now also his Kannada Grammar, p. 198, § 241, and a remark at the bottom of p. 197), teaches that it is a mistake to treat as *šithila* or slack, that is as not lengthening a preceding short vowel, a double consonant the second component of which is r, and also that in writing out verses it is bad to leave no space between the different words unless they come under the rules of samdhi. And, in illustration of the sûtra, Kêsirâja has presented a stanza which runs (see Dr. Kittel's edition, p. 71):<sup>41</sup>—

Barisi pradhânaram kullirisi priya-kuśala-vârtteyam nere kêldu I sthiram-irddu prabhu nudiye prarûdha-mudan=âdan=âtan=embud=amârggam II

Of these three verses thus presented in the Sabdamaṇidarpaṇa, the first, nudig-ellam, &c., might certainly be taken as a quotation from the Kavırājamārga; the only difference between the two versions is in a quite unimportant detail. And the second of them, arasu-kumāranan, &c., might well pass for a quotation, from that same work, with three various readings, in details of no special

<sup>40</sup> This simile is presented in the words muttum-melasum-god-ante. It is presented, in the same words, in another verse which was first brought to notice by Mr. Rice, who, however, chiefly through confusing goda, =koda, the past relative participle of ko (3), 'to string upon a thread,' with godt, 'wheat,' failed to understand it; see Jour. R. As. Soc., 1883, p. 296, and Karnatakabhashabhashabhashana, Introd. p. 9. That verse is to be found in Dr. Kittel's Sabdamanidarpana, p. 78, where it is given in illustration of satra 65, which teaches the changes of k to g, &c., in forming compounds. But the text there, using another variant of menasu, gives melasam, by mistake for melasum, which is probably the chief reason why even Dr. Kittel did not recognise the meaning of the simile; see id. Introd. p. 17 f. That same text also presents, before muttum, the unintelligible reading jam-eds. The correct reading in that point, — namely, jam-gads (or jam-gads), 'on knowledge being destroyed or impaired,' — has been supplied by Dr. Kittel in his Kannada-English Dictionary, under jam; where, however, with still another variant of menasu, molasam is presented, instead of molasum. That verse means: — "The poetry of (those) wretched poets, who, taking an Old-Kanarese word, and, taking and joining to it a Sanskrit (word), ignorantly express themselves just in the same fashion as if they were stringing together pearls and pepper-coins, — how can it please the hearts of learned people?"

<sup>41</sup> In transcribing Dr. Kittel's text of the verse, I have added the consonants which ought to have been given by repetition after a preceding r; that detail has been disregarded in Dr. Kittel's book, throughout.

importance, which could easily be accounted for. But the third verse, barisi pradhanaram kullirisi, &c., can hardly be accepted as a quotation of the verse barisi kshitipatiyani sayt-irisi, &c. The differences go beyond anything in the way of any ordinary various readings. They alter the sense in certain well marked features. The verse in the Kavirajamarga speaks of a "king" being "summoned (literally, caused to come)" and "made to feel at ease;" whereas, the verse in the Sabdamanidar pana speaks, much more appropriately, of "ministers" being "summoned" and "caused, or allowed, to sit down." It might be said that Kêsirâja, not satisfied with having in this verse already three instances of the combination pr after a short vowel, introduced a fourth by adapting the verse of the Kavirajamarga by substituting pradhanaram for kshitipatiyam. But, even so, there was no necessity of any kind for him to substitute kuilirisi, 'having caused to sit down,' for saut-irisi, 'having caused to feel at ease,' nere keldu, 'having made full inquires,' for besa-gondu, 'having demanded or questioned,' and amargann, 'bad style,' for dûshyam, 'to be censured.' And, more to the point still, if he so introduced an additional and quite superfluous instance of the combination pr after a short vowel, he gratuitously destroyed another instance of bad style, objected to by him, which was to be found in connection with the combination ksh after a short vowel. The explanation is to be found in the following facts. It appears that Kêśirâja has not anywhere mentioned the name of any Kavîśvara, or any work called Kavirajamarga. He has mentioned Nripatunga; but only in the illustrative stanza quoted on page 197 above, which does not attribute to him any literary attainments or any connection with literature, and does not tend in any way to connect him with the Kavirdjandrga. On the other hand, in verse 5 of the introduction to his Sabdamanidarpana he has expressly mentioned Srivijaya among the writers whose good style was to be kept in view in his own work.42 It can hardly be doubted that Kesiraja took the verse baris: pradhanaram, &c., not from the Kavirdjamarga, but from Srivijaya.43 We naturally decide that it was from Srivijaya that he took also the verses nudig-ellam, &c., and arasu-kumuranan, &c, and that these verses, again, were taken by Kavîśvara into his Kavirdjamarga from Srīvijaya's work. And it is tolerably certain that Kavisvara's verse barisi kshitipatiyan, &c., was another case of adaptation, which was probably made because Kawiśvara found it easier to compose his next verse with an alliteration of the t of kshitipatiyan, than with an alliteration of the dh of pradhánaran.

The editor has further said (Introd. p. 1, note 5) that Îsvarakavi, — a writer referred both by Dr. Kittel<sup>44</sup> and by Mr. R. Narasimhachar<sup>45</sup> to the sixteenth century A. D. — has quoted "from Nripatunga" verse 232 of chapter 3 of the Kavirājamārga, which is a stanza, commencing arasarol=ela nîn, in illustration of the double prāsa or alliteration of the second and third syllables of each pāda of a verse. He has, in fact, said that "both Nāgavarmā and Îśvarakavi quote it from "Nripatunga." And, as has been indicated on page 272 above, in verse 65 of the Chhandômbudhi we have that same stanza, with certain unimportant differences in detail. As to what form the verse may present in Îśvarakavi's work, I am not able to say anything. But the selection of the verse as an instance of quotation of the Kavirājamārga by Nāgavarma and Îśvarakavi, is peculiarly unfortunate. As has already been remarked on page 272 above (see also note 31), Dr. Kittel has rendered it at any rate doubtful whether verse 65 in the Chhandômbudhi belongs to the real version of that work,

<sup>42</sup> He has, perhaps, even mentioned Śrîvijaya's *Ravimûrga*; namely, in sûtra 193 (Dr. Kittel's edition, p. 231), where he has said that he has to the best of his ability elucidated the subject of compounds as they occur in *kavimûrga*. The commentary, however, explains this word as meaning *kavigala mûrgadalli*, 'in the style or-usage of poets.' And so we may have here only an use of *kavi-mûrga*, analogous to the mention of *kavi-rûja-mûrga* in the *Kûvyûvalôkana*, regarding which see page 275 above.

<sup>48</sup> The same stanza barisi pradhânaran, &c., has been given in precisely that same form by Bhattâlakaika in the course of his commentary on sûtra 67 of his Karnâtaksâbdânuŝâsana; see Mr Rice's edition of that work, in which, while the transliterated text (p. 60) presents barasi, the Kanarese text (p. 53) shews barisi. Bhattâkalaika has introduced the stanza as "used as an example (udâhrita) by him (Kêśava);" meaning "by Kéśirâja," as is shewn by his immediately preceding quotation of sûtra 59 of the Sibdamanidarpana. And thus, while not helping us by attributing the stanza to Śrîvijaya, — whom, so far as the Karnâtaksabdânuśâsana goes, he seems not to have known at all, — he has at any rate plainly implied that he knew that it was not composed by Kêśirâja.

48 Nâgavarma's Canarese Prosody, Introd. p. 61.

and has expressed the opinion that it was taken into it from the Kavijihvabandhana of Îśvarakavi; and, in another direction, Mr. R. Narasimhachar has told us that the verses which stand as 231 to 235 in chapter 3 of the Kavirajamarga, do not belong to that work at all. So far, therefore, from it being the case that Îśvarakavi quoted the said verse 232 from the Kavirajamarga, it is tolerably obvious that the verse was introduced into the Kavirajamarga, by interpolation, from the work of Îsvarakavi.

Finally, the editor has asserted (Introd. p. 1) that "the Sabdanusasana cites one verse" from the Kavir djamarga, "and appeals to Nripatniga as a standard authority on Alankara." We will take first the latter assertion, which is more or less correct. As has been already stated on page 198 above in his own commentary on sûtra 288 of his Karnatakasabdanusasana, which he finished in A. D. 1604,46 in referring to a certain point of difference between the northern and the southern poets. Bhattakalanka has said that "a clever disquisition on the different usages of the varying styles of the south and the north, is to be seen in the book of Nripatunga." And there can be no doubt that his allusion is to verses 49 to 108 of chapter, 2, of the Kavirdjamarga, written by Kavisvara under the patronage of Nripatunga-Amôghavarsha I., which does there present a disquisition on the differing styles of the northern and the southern poets. As regards the asserted instance of citation: however, the facts are as follows. The verse in question has been specified by the editor (Introd. p. 1, note 5) as the verse arasarol=ela nim, &c., which stands as verse 232 of chapter 3 of the Kavirajamarga in illustration of the double prasa or alliteration of the second and third syllables of each pâda of a verse. And below sûtra 202 of his Karnājukaśabdanuśasana, in illustration of his statement that arasi, 'a queen,' and other words classed with it, are irregular feminines, Bhattâkalanka has presented that same verse, except that, with an unimportant difference, with him it begins arasarol=elage, instead of arasarol=ela nim.47 If we knew no better, this, taken in connection with Bhattakalanka's reference to Nripatungayrantha, "the book of Nripatunga," might certainly be taken as a quotation from the Kavirajanarga. But, as has been said on page 272 above. Mr. R. Narasimhachar has told us that the verses which stand as verses 231 to 235 in chapter 3 of the Kavirajamarga, do not belong to that work at all. It was, therefore, not from the specified verse 232 of the Kavirájamárga that Bhattâkalanka took his illústration of the use of the word arasi. 'a queen;' unless, of course, the interpolation of the five verses in question into the Kavirdjamarqa had already been accomplished before A. D. 1604: and the probability is that Bhattakalanka obtained the verse from Îsvarakavi.

The conclusions at which we arrive in respect of the composition of the Kaviraja-marga are plain and simple. The work was written during the period A. D. 814-15 to 877-78. And the author of it was a person who has made himself known to us by the name of Kavisvara,—a secondary appellation which he must have adopted in imitation of an earlier Kavisvara who has been mentioned by him. But he wrote his work under the patronage of the Bashtrakuta king Nripatunga-Amoghavarsha I. And he has credited his patron with inspiring so much of it, and has otherwise introduced his patron's names and quoted his views so often and so prominently, that the work came to be known, in later times, as Nripatungagrantha, "the book of Nripatunga." Kavisvara based his work on the Kavimarga of a writer named Srivijaya, who was very probably the earlier Kavisvara himself, in imitation of whom the author adopted the appellation by which he has made himself known to us.48 Kavisvara has distinctly told

<sup>46</sup> See note 9 on page 197 above.

<sup>\*7</sup> See Mr Rice's Karnátakaśabdánuśásanam, transliterated text, p. 122, as specified by the editor of the Kavirájamárya. The Kanarese text (p. 112) presents arasarol-ela ní; but that has been indicated in the table of corrections as a mistake for arasarol-elagê.

<sup>48</sup> Mr. R. Narasimhachar has expressed the opinion that "in spite of the arguments adduced by Mr. Pathak "on p. 3 of his Introduction, there is room for supposing that Srivijaya may have written the work in the name of "his royal patron" (Kâvyâvalêkanam, Introd, p. 18, note 2). But, if he had gone fully into the matter, he would certainly have arrived at the conclusions reached by me; the specification (see page 269 above) of the writings of Srivijaya as âdya-kâvya, 'early poetry,' that is, earlier than the time of the writer of this Kavirâjamârya, is sufficient to shew that Srivijaya was not the author of this Kavirâjamârya,

us that his own work was the work of Srîvijaya in a new guise. We can see how, in certain places, he fashioned that new guise, by adapting verses of Srîvijaya with the introduction of certain alterations to suit the patronage under which he wrote. And, if Srîvijaya's Kavimárga is ever recovered, we shall probably find that practically the whole of Kavîśvara's Kavirájamárga is simply an adaptation of it, and that it was Srîvijaya, and not either Kavîśvara or Amôghavarsha I., who made the translations from the Sanskrit writer Dandin which underlie so much of the Kavirájamárga.<sup>49</sup>

The conclusions to be formed regarding the nature of the edition of Kavisvara's Kavirājamārga under the name of Nripatunga's Kavirājamārga are neither so simple to arrive at, nor so pleasant to express. The book possesses, indeed, one good feature, in presenting, in addition to the text in Kanarese characters which is of course requisite for Native students, the transliterated text which makes it so much easier for others to investigate its contents without an unprofitable waste of time; and it would be a material enhancement of the value of all the publications of the series in which this book has found a place, if every one of them, without exception, were cast on the same lines in that respect. Also, it gives us, we presume, a reliable version of the text, as far as it could be settled by the manuscripts which were available. Beyond that, however, it does not place before us anything that can be taken as a topic of commendation. The editor has given us but few, if substantially any, of the explanatory and illustrative notes which are an essential part of an up-to-date edition of any ancient work, and particularly of such a work as the one under notice. He has not given us any index, either to the text or even to his own Introduction. He has not furnished any such general account of the scheme of the work and the arrangement of its contents, as would have been of use to anyone wishing to explore any particular part of it. He has not even taken the trouble to mark or arrange the text in such a way as to distinguish between the principal parts of it and those which are simply of the nature of examples. And his aim seems to have been simply to spend a short time on the compilation of the text, which is a brief one, and in the settlement of which only three manuscripts had to be consulted, and then to devote a long time to the elaboration of a treatise, published by way of an Introduction, which advertises him as anxious to try his hand at anything rather than the proper work of an editor. We can hardly attribute to him inability to understand the meaning of the work. Still, it must be remarked that in another essay, in composing which he ought to have been more than usually careful to be correct,50 he has shewn himself unable to recognise the real import of a very simple Kanarese verse, which does not say that Srutakîrti-Traividya composed a Rûyhavapûndavîya which was to be read both forwards and backwards and would give sense when read in either direction, but does say that he performed the feat of reciting both forwards and backwards an ordinary work of that name (composed: by someone else). And thus it is, perhaps, in some similar failure that we may find the reason for which he has dealt in so misleading a manner with the question as to who was the author of the Kavirājamārga. But, whatever may be the explanation of that detail, his results are anything but

<sup>49</sup> On this matter see Kavirājamārga, Introd. pp. 18-20. — In connection with the question of the age of Dandin, the editor (Introd. p. 20, and note 1) has cited the riddle nāsikya-madhyā paritah, ¿c., given by Dandin in his Kāvyādarśa, 3, 114; and, rejecting the solution Kāūchi and Chōdarāja given by the commentator Vijayānanda, has adopted the solution Kāūchi and the kings whose name was Pundraka which is given by the editor of the Kūvyādarśa (Bibliotheca Indica edition, p. 399). But he has not attempted to shew what connection, if any, the Pundrakas ever had with Kāūchi.

By way of an answer to the riddle, an eight-letter word is required, to denote the kings of Kanchi, if that is the city intended. And the nominative plural Pallanch would answer the requirement better than the base Pundraka, in addition to connecting with Kanchi a line of kings who really did rule that city in the time to which Dandin is sometimes referred, the 6th century A. D. But it may be remarked that, if the riddle is bahirlapin, and not antarlapin, — that is to say, if for the city we are not restricted to Kanchi by the words kachi-purl in the verse, — then an equally good answer is Vengi and Chalukyth. No doubt, other answers also could be found with a little thought. And it would be possible that nasikya-madhyth has a double meaning, and indicates secondarily some town in the Nasik country.

<sup>59</sup> Namely, in his article published in the Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. Vol. XXI. pp. 1 to 3, to which he gave the solemn title "On the Jaina Poem Råghavapåndaviya: a Reply to Prof. Max Muller."

creditable to him in this particular matter, or calculated to inspire confidence in him in other directions. He has misled us in respect of the identity of the author of the Kavirājamārga. And, whereas he has on several occasions taken the position of being competent to write with authority on questions of ancient Indian literature, in the settlement of which a great deal depends upon the extent to which authors have quoted one another, now, by his assertions of quotation of the Kavirājamārga in other works, and especially in connection with the three verses exhibited side by side on page 272 f. above, he has shewn that he is not able to distinguish between, on the one side, a case in which one author does really quote from another, with or without any slight alteration, and, on the other side, a case in which two authors obtain a passage, or the basis of a passage, independently from a third writer. In the last paragraph but one of his Introduction, the editor has somewhat naively indicated that there might be "a more satisfactory edition of the Kavirājamārga." Whatever else may be uncertain, there is no room for any doubt about that.

### TATTOOING IN CENTRAL INDIA.

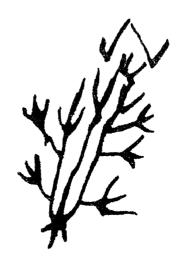
BY CAPTAIN C. E. LUARD, M.A., Superintendent of Ethnography in Central India.

(Continued from p. 249.)

7. Tattoo Marks from Maksudangarh State.

(Collected by Babu Kedar Nath.)

 A Sītāphal tree, Custard apple (Anona squamosa) — marked on the legs of a female.



2. Kitchen of Sîtājī — marked on the fore-arm.



3. Sahēlīs (young girls) dancing together — marked on the leg.



4. Scorpions - marked on the wrist...



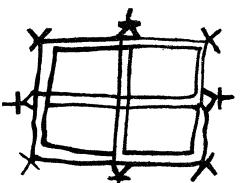
5. A sieve - on the back of the hand.



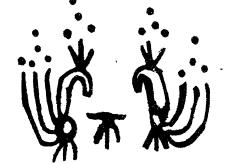
6. Barā (armlets) — on the arm ...



7. Chauk—on the leg



8. Peacocks—on the chest ...



9. Papīhā (Falco nisus), a bird — marked on the back of the hand below the thumb.



10. Pīrhī (a four-legged stool to sit on) — on the fore-arm.



11. The lower part of the Arī (churn)
— on the fore-arm.



12. Deer — on the fore-arm...



13. Bundī — on the right side of the nose.



14. Buṇḍī — on each temple

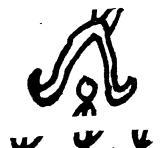


15. Bundî — on the chin ...

16. Suvā-kī-pāntī (row of parrots) — on the leg.



17. Mukat (crown) - on the arm.



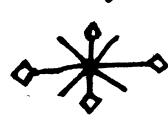
18. Gujarī (milkmaid) — on the leg ...



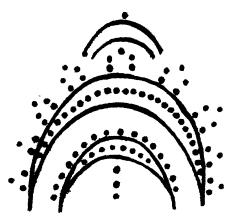
19. On the temples ... ...



20. Sālīyā — on the back of the hand.

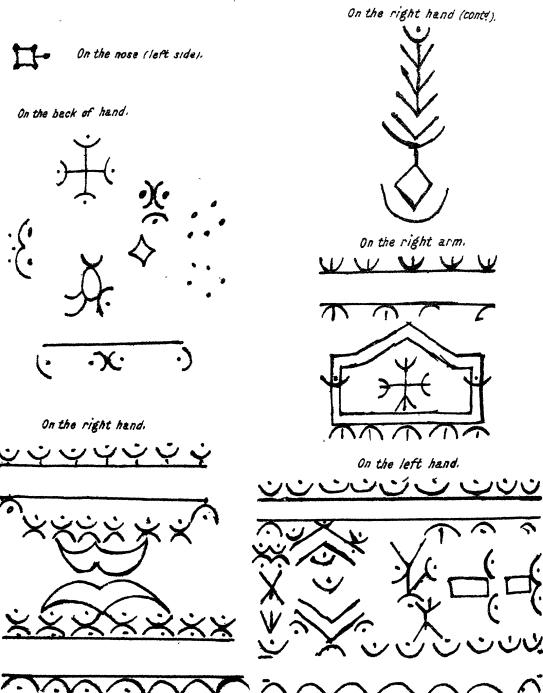


21. Dillī Darwāzā — on the forearm.



# 8. Tattoo Marks on Mālavī Women.

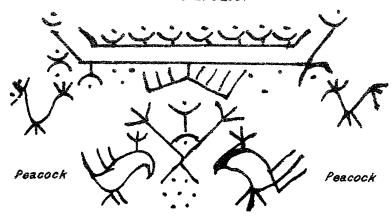
(Collected at Indore.)



N.B.-Designs were sent without any explanation, but it is easy to trace most of them from examples already given,

On the right,

On the breast.



# 9. Tattoo Marks on Sudra Women from the Dakhan.

Forehead चीजोरा Bijora

Nose (left side)

On the Left cheek

Between eye & ear सोंगे Soga

On the chin

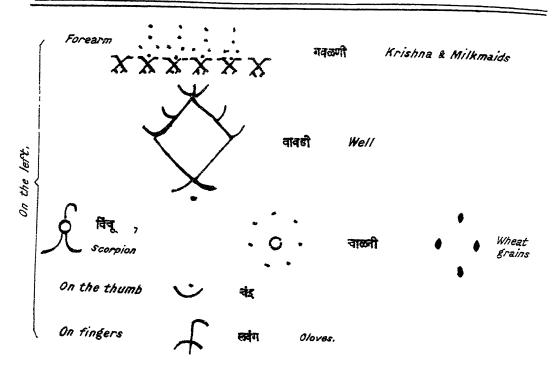
Forearm

Side

Ge सें झाड

Flies

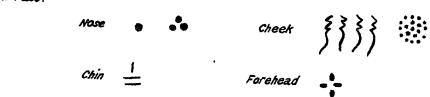
माशा



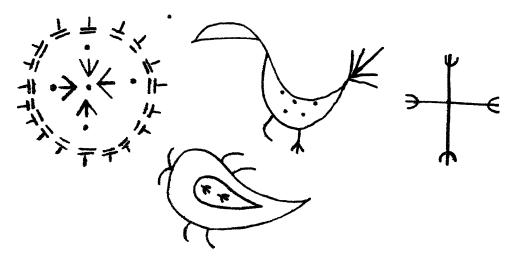
10. Tattoo Marks from Bhopal State.

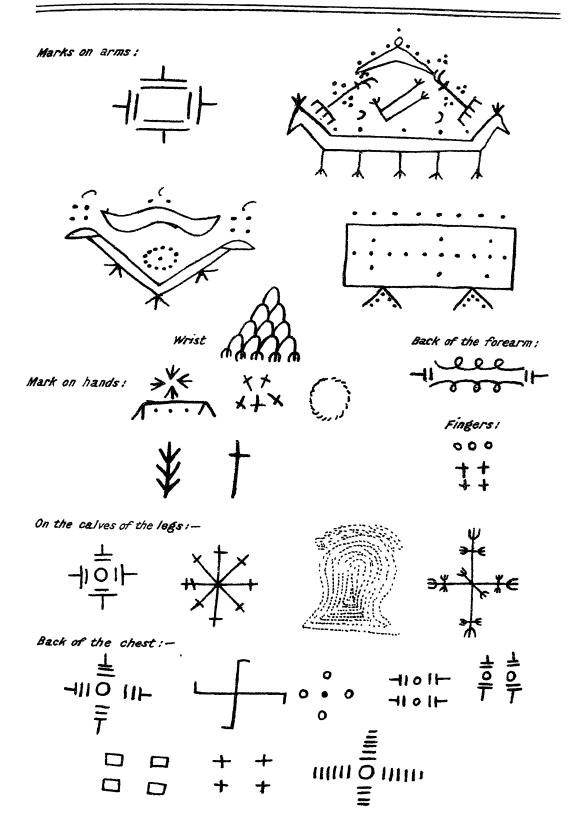
(Sent without comment.)

Marks on Face:



Marks on Chest:

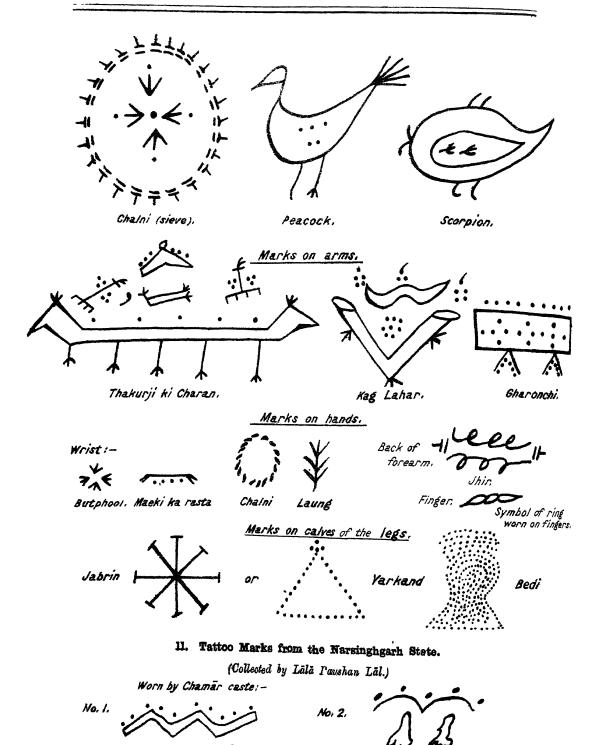




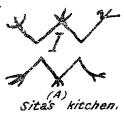
Ram.

Lakshman,

Armiet (Bara).



No. 3.



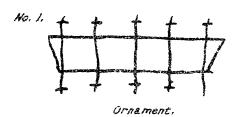
No. 5

Chanta or Gong.

No. 4.



Worn by Ghori caste: -



No. 5.



No. 2.



No. 5.



No. 3.



No. 7.



No. 4.



Line of men.

# A COMPLETE VERBAL CROSS-INDEX TO YULE'S HOBSON-JOBSON OR GLOSSARY OF ANGLO-INDIAN WORDS.

## BY CHARLES PARTRIDGE, M.A.

(Continued from p. 216.)

'toa: s. v. 290. i, s. v. Adam's Apple, 3, ii, s. v. Budgrook, 92, i, 3 times, s. v. Canara, 117, ii, ii, times and footnote, s. v. Concan, 189, ii, twice, s. v. Curry, 217, ii, s. v. Goa Plum, 290, ii, s. v. Goa Powder, 290, ii, s. v. Griffin, 303, i and ii, s. v. Jamboo, 342, i, s. v. Mango, 423, ii, see 424, i, footnote, s. v. Mort-dechien, 451, ii, 452, i, s. v. Myrobalan, 466, i, s. v. Neelám, 476, i, twice, s. v. Padre, 496, zi, see 560, ii, footnote, s. v. Reinol, 576, ii, s. v. Salsette (b), 594, ii, 3 times, s. v. Sapeku, 600, i, see 627, ii, footnote, s. v. Sindābūr, 635, i, s. v. Stink-wood, 652, i, s. v. Tanga, 682, ii, twice, s. v. Teak, 693, i, s. v. Vedas, 734, i, s. v. Wootz, 742, i, s. v. Xerafine, 743, i, s. v. Bargany, 761, i, s. v. Canarin, 771, ii, twice, s. v. Cranny, 785, ii, s. v. Creole, 786, i, s. v. Palankeen, 836, i, twice, s. v. Pardao, 837, i and ii, 838, ii, twice, see 839, i, footnote, 3 times, and ii and footnote. 3 times, 840, i, twice, s. v. Sabaio, 851, ii, s. v. Sanguicer, 853; ii; ann. 1345 : s. v. Anchediva, 20, i; ann. 1391 : s. v. 290, i; ann. 1504-5: s. v. Pardao, 840, in; ann. 1509: s. v. Monsoon, 824, ii; ann. 1510: s. v. Coir, 180, ii, s. v. Peon., 528, i, s. v. Salsette (b), 595, i, twice, s. v. Idalcan, 808, i, twice, s. v. Pardao, 840, ii, s. v. Sabaio, 852, i, twice; ann. 1513:s.v. Winter, 867, i, twice; ann. 1514:s.v. Malabar, 412, ii; ann. 1516: s. v. Pagoda, 500, ii, s. v. Tanadar, 681, ii, s. v. Sabaio, 852, i, twice, s. v. Sanguicer, 853, ii; ann. 1518: s. v. Gallevat (c), 276, ii, (d), 277, i; ann. 1519: s. v. Tanadar, 681, ii; ann. 1520: s. v. 290, i; ann. 1524: s. v. Bankshall (a), 46, ii; ann. 1531: s. v. Bombay, 766, ii; ann. 1535: s. v. Cańara, 117, ii, 118, i; ann. 1539: s. v. Buggalow, 94, ii, ann. 1543: s. v. Mort-de-chien, 449, i; ann. 1545: s. v. Arakan, 25, i, s. v. Cosmin, 201, i; ann. 1546: s. v. Avadavat, 759, i; ann. 1548: s. v. Areca, 25, ii; ann. 1552: s. v. Cotia, 205, ii, s. v. Cummerbund, 216, ii; ann. 1553: s. v. Jogee, 352, i; ann. 1554: s. v. Boy (b), 83, ii, s. v. Brinjaul, 87, i, s. v. Ganton, 278, i. \*. v. Linguist, 395, i, s. v. Sindābūr, 635,

ii, 5 times; ann. 1563: s. v. Maldives, 418, it. s. v. Muster, 462, ii, s. v. Saffron, 589, ii, s. v. Idalcan, 808, i, twice; ann. 1564: s. v. Bazaar. 56, ii, s. v. Oart, 484, ii; ann. 1566: s. v. Pagoda (c), 501, ii; ann. 1567: s. v. Caste, 131, ii, s. v. China, 152, i, s. v. Winter, 740, ii; ann. 1574: s. v. Pundit, 560, ii; ann. 1578: s. v. Pial, 533; ii; ann. 1584: s. v. Winter, 740, ii, s. v. Bargany, 761, ii, s. v. Pardao, 841, 1 (5 times) and ii, s. v. Sanguicer, 853, ii; ann. 1585 : s. & Betel, 68, i, s. v. Shroff, 630, i.; ann. 1598: s. v. Neelam, 475, ii, s. v. Salsette (b). 595, ii, s. v. Xerafine, 743, ii, twice, s. v. Pardao, 841, ii, twice; ann. 1599: s. v. Serang, 615, i; ann. 1602: s. v. Pagoda (c), 502, i, twice; ann. 1606: s. v. Palankeen. 836, ii; ann. 1610: s. v. Salsette (a), 595, i. 3 times, s. v. Winter, 740, ii; ann. 1611: s. v. Budgrook, 92, ii; ann. 1613: s. v. Beriberi, 66, ii, s. v. Sind, 634, ii; ann. 1614: s. v. Sanguicel, 853, ii; ann. 1615: s. v. Carrack, 127, ii, s. v. Iac, 381, ii, s. v. Nabob (a), 467, ii; ann. 1616: s. v. Calicut, 113, ii; ann. 1622: s. v. Mango, 424, i; ann. 1623: s. v. Cańara, 118, ii, s. v. Ghaut (c), 282, ii, s. v. Andor, 758, i; ann. 1648: s. v. 290, i: ann. 1650 : s. v. Paulist, 521, ii ; ann. 1653 ; s. v. Mustees, 828, i, s. v. Xerafine, 867, ii; ann. 1665: s. v. Mugg, 455, ii; ann. 1666: s. v. Hoogly, 322, i; ann. 1672: s. v. Canara, 118, ii, s. v. Jancada, 810, ii; ann. 1673: s. v. Mango, 424, i, s. v. Oart, 484, ii, s. v. Paulist, 521, ii, s. v. Reas, 575, i, s. v. Rottle, 582, ii; ann. 1675: s. v. Venetian, 736, ii, s. v. Xerafine, 743, ii; ann. 1676: s. v. Mangelin, 423, i, twice; ann. 1684: s. v. Kedgeree, 364, ii; ann. 1688: s. v. Brahmin, 85, i; ann. 1689: s. v. Punch, 559, ii; ann. 1692: s. v. Padre, 497, i; ann. 1694: s. v. Punch, 559, ii; ann. 1712:s. v. Cornac, 198, i; ann. 1727: s. v. Achár, 3, i, s. v. Jamboo, 342, ii, s. v. Mango, 424, i, s. v. St. John's Island (b), 591, ii, s. v. Xerafine, 743; ii; ann. 1732: s. v. Concan, 189, ii; ann. 1750-60: s. v. Tanga, 683, i, twice; ann. 1760: s. v.

Budgrook, 93, i, s. v. Catechu, 133, ii. s. v. Maund, 432, i, s. v. Paulist, 521, ii; ann. 1881: s. v. Inida of the Portuguese, 333 i. Goa Churches; s. v. Malabar Rites, 413, ii. Goa Hospital; s. v. Pyjammas, 566, ii. Goa Master; ann. 1747: s. v. Gomasta, 802. i. Goanese; ann. 1883: s. v. Maistry, 410, ii. Goa Plum; s. v. 290, ii. Goa Potato ; s. v. 290, ii. Goa Powder: s. v. 290; ii. Goa Rupee; s. v. Pardao, 840, i. Goa-Sindābūr; ann. 1554: s. v. Sindābūr, 635. ii. Goa-Stone; s. v. 801, ii; ann. 1673; s. v. Goa Stone, 290, ii; ann. 1768-71: s. v. 801. ii; ann. 1867: s. v. Goa Stone, 290, ii. Goa Stone; s. v. 290, ii; ann. 1690 and 1711: s. v. 290, ii. Gobang; s. v. 801, ii. Gobarnapore; s. v. Kidderpore, 814, ii. Gobinpore; ann. 1698: s. v. Zemindar, 748: i. Gocurn; ann. 1673: s. v. Begar, 61, i. Godama; ann. 1818: s. v. Pali, 506; i. Godavari; s. v. Coringa, 197, ii. Godávari; s. v. Circars, 170, ii, twice. Godāvarī; s. v. Godavery, 290, ii. Godavery: s. v. 290, ii, 291, i, 3 times, 802, i, twice, s. v. Buffalo, 93, ii, s. v. Cheroot, 144, ii. s. v. Cowry, 209, i, s. v. Lunka, 401, i, s. v. Madapollam, 406, ii, s. v. Nassiek, 474, ii, s. v. Rajamundry, 571, ii, s. v. Saul-wood, 603, i, see 829, i. footnote; ann. 1590: s. v. Gautama, 279, ii, s. v. 291, ii; ann. 1753: s. v. Kedgeree, 812, ii; ann. 1793: s. v. Telinga, 694, ii; ann. 1837: s. v. Gentoo, 281, ii; ann. 1882: s. v. Doray, 792, ii. Goddess; s. v. 291, ii; ann. 1772: s. v. 291, ii. Godeman: ann. 1782: s. v. Gautama. 279, ii. Godhā: s. v. Guana, 304. i. Godoens: ann. 1613: s. v. Godown, 292, i. Godomem; ann. 1545: s. v. Gautama, 800, ii, 3 times. Godon; ann. 1570: s. v. Godown, 292, i. Godoriins; s. v. 1598: s. v. Goodry, 295, 11. Godovārī; ann. 1590: s. v. Godavery, 291, ii. Godown; s. v. 291, ii; ann. 1552, 1561, 1683 and 1696: s. v. 292, i; ann. 1726: s. v. Chintz, 155, ii; ann. 1781: s. v. Compound, 188, i, twice; ann. 1784: s. v. Khanna, 366, i, s. v. Pucka, 555, ii; ann. 1809 and 1880: s. v. 292, i.

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Godowne: ann. 1685: s. v. Pattello, 521, i.
Godowry: ann. 1783: s. v. Godavery, 291, i.
God-Tree: ann. 1681: s. v. Bo Tree. 81. ii.
Goedown; ann. 1680: s. v. Godown 292, i.
Goe moat: ann. 1662: s. v. Goa. 290. i.
Goeni-zakken; ann. 1726: s. v. Gunny, 308, fi.
Goeny-sacks: ann. 1693: s. v. Gunny, 308. ii.
Goerabb: ann: 1750-52: s. v. Grab. 300. ii.
Goff-stick: ann. 969: s. v. Chicane, 147, ii,
  twice.
Gog: s. v. Macheen. 405; i: ann. 1300: s. v.
  Mogul, 436, i; ann. 1860: s. v. Non-regula-
  tion, 482, i.
Goga: s. v. Gogo. 293, i.; ann. 1504-5: s. v.
  Pardao, 840, ii; ann. 1510: s. v. Goa, 290, i,
  s. v. Sabaio. 852. i: ann. 1531 : s. v. Gogo.
  298; i; ann. 1614 and 1727: s. v. Gogo,
Gogá: ann. 1602: s. v. Gogo, 293, i.
Gogā; s, v. Gogo, 293. i.
Gogala; s. v. Gogolla, 293, ii; ann. 1508: s. v.
  Room, 581, i; ann. 1589: s. v. Gogolla,
  293, ii.
Gogalla; s. v. Room, 581, i.
Goglet; s. v. 292, ii, 802, i, s. v. Kooza, 375,
  ii, s. v. Serai (b), 615, i; ann. 1766: s. v.
  802, ii; ann. 1829: s. v. Bheesty, 70, i, s. r.
  292, ii; ann. 1830 and 1855: 3: v. 293, i.
Gogo: s. v. 293; i, twice; ann. 1590: s. v.
  Sūrath, 666, i.
Gogola: s. v. Room, 581, i, twice.
Gogolla; s. v. 293, ii; ann. 1525 : s. v. 293, ii.
Gogra; s. v. Oudh, 494, i.
Gogul; ann. 1813: s. v. Googul, 296, i.
Goh; s. v. Guana, 304, i.
Goheed; ann. 1787: s. v. Begum, 59, ii.
Gohud; ann. 1787: s. v. Begum, 59, ii.
Goké; s. v. Gecko, 279, ii.
Gola; 14th cent.: s. v. Kulá, 378, il.
Gola; s. v. Kulá, 378, ii.
Golā; s. v. Golah, 293, ii.
Golah; s: v. 293, ii; ann. 1762: s. v. Gomasta:
   294, i.; ann. 1767: s. v. Boutique, 767. i:
  ann. 1810 and 1878: s. v. 293, ii.
Golamattikanagara; a 14th cent.: s. v. Kulá,
   378, ii.
Golconda; s. v. Godavery, 291, i, s. v. Cotama-
   luco, 784, ii; ann. 1648: s.v. Gentoo (b), 281.
   i; ann. 1650: s. v. Shabunder, 618, ii; ann.
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1660: s. v. Palankeen, 836, ii; ann. 1676;

Jumbeea, 358, i.

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Gomroon; ann. 1630: s. v. Gombroon, 294, il.
  s. v. Chintz, 155, ii, s. v. Mangelin, 423, i;
                                                  Gomrow; ann. 1630: s. v. Gombroon, 294. ii.
  ann. 1726: s. v. Gentoo (b), 281, ii; ann.
                                                  Gomuti; s. v. Sagwire, 590, i.
  1830: s. v. Ceylon, 776, ii; ann. 1877: s. v.
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#### MISCELLANEA.

#### A NOTE ON THE KURUKSHETRA.

THE famous battle-field of Kurukshêtra, where the Kauravas and Pândavas fought for eighteen days, is situated on the south side of Thanesar, 30 miles south of Ambâla in the Panjâb, and an account of its antiquities will be found in Cunningham's Archeological Survey Reports, Vol. XIV, p.86. The following note by L. Raghunath Das, Superintendent of Ethnography to the Jind State, relates to that part of the Kurukshêtra which hes in that State and forms the southern border of the sacred territory, lying west of Pânîpat and including Safîdôn and Jind, the two ancient towns, which are the most important places in the south, as Thanesar and Pehôa are in the north, of the Kurukshêtra. The details of the various temples, shrines, and places of pilgrimage in this tract do not lend countenance to Cunningham's suspicion that both Kaithal and Jind have been included in the holy circuit in recent times to gratify the Sikh Râjâs of those places. The archæological remains of the southern Kurukshêtra do not appear to have ever been examined by an expert, though the whole territory would probably repay systematic exploration.

H. A. Rose.

July 20th, 1903.

- (1) At Baraud in the Safidôn 'ildqa, and 3½ miles to the north-east of the town of Safidôn, is a temple of Mahâdêva, which is said to date from the Satya-Yuga. It is visited by the people on the śiva-rātris, and as there are no pujāris, the villagers here perform worship themselves.
- (2) At Safîdôn itself there are three ancient tirthas and temples, supposed to have been built towards the close of the Dvåpara Yuga, namely, Någêsvara Mahâdêva, Någa-damanî Dêvî (or Bhawan Dêvî) and Någakshetra. The legend goes that at the end of the Dvåpara Yuga Råjå Parîkshit was bitten by a serpent, Takshaka. To avenge him, his son Råjå Janamêjaya established the images of Någêsvara Mahâdêva and Någa-damanî Dêvî (the goddess who slaughters serpents) in the temples and invoked them. He then made a hawan védî, or place of sacred fire, and held a holocaust of the snakes with their śakttis (powers).
- (i) Någêśvara Mahâdêva. This temple, which lies on a tank, contains an idol of Någêśvara Mahâdêva, and fairs are held here on the

- 13th and 14th of Såwan and Phågun in the dark half of the month. The worshipper here is believed to obtain Någa-lôka.
- (ii) The Bhawan Dêvîjî or Temple of the Goddess This temple contains an idol of Nâga-damanî Dêvî. Fairs are held on the 7th and 9th of Asauj and Chet sudi. The temple was rebuilt by Rājā Raghbîr Singh of Jînd in Sanvat 1943.
- (iii) The Någakshêtra Tîrtha. The tank here was rebuilt by Råjå Raghbîr Singh in the same year. The tîrthα of Någakshêtra is the place where the snakes were slaughtered and hence is called Sarpa-daman. Bathing in it is believed to set one free from the fear of Någas (snakes).
- (iv) Sri-Krishna. This temple was also erected by Râjâ Raghbîr Singh in the same year. Its fair is held on the 8th of Bhâdôn badi.

The administration of the above temples is in the hands of the State authorities, three Gaur Brâhmans of the Kausıka *gôtra* being nominated as *pujáris* and paid by the State.

- (3) Mahâdêva. There is also a temple of Mahâdêva at Pâjû Kalân in the Safîdôn 'ilaqa, 3 miles north-west of Safîdôn. It is on the Pârâśara tank, so called because Pârâśara Rishi performed penances here. It also dates from the Satya-Yuga, and its fairs are held on the 13th and 14th of Sâwan and Phâgun badt. People also bathe here on every Sunday in Sâwan. It is in charge of a Shâmî Bairâgî of the Râmânandî Order, who must remain celibate.
- (4) The Singhi-Rikh Tank at Sanghana, 4 miles west of Safidôn, owes its name to Singhi-Rikh, the Rishi who worshipped there. Bathing in it on a parab or fête-day is meritorious.
- (5) There is also a temple of Mahâdêva at Hât, 6 miles south-west of Safîdôn in the same 'ilâqa on the Pancha Nada.¹ It has been in existence since the Satya-Yuga, and to bathe in its tank is equivalent in spiritual efficacy to performing 5 yajnas. There are fairs here on the same dates as at Pâjû Kalân, but no regular pujûrîs are appointed, though occasionally a Shâmî (Bairâgî), a Brahmachârî, a Gosâîn or a Sâdhu may halt here in his wanderings. Two

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Pancha Nada, the place where 5 *Wrthas* were connected with 5 channels by Hât Kaish Mahâdêva (Bâwan Purân).

miles from Hât is the Aranbak Yaksha, one of the four yakshas or monsters, who guarded the four corners of the battle-field.

(6) The Sûraj Kund Tank at Kâlwâ,  $9\frac{1}{3}$  miles south-west of Safîdôn in the same 'ilâqa, is believed to owe its origin to Sûraj Narain, and bathing in it at any time, but more specially on a Sunday, is held to avert the sûraj-grah or evil influence of the Sun-god.

The old temple of Sûraj Bhagavân at Sûraj Kund, the ruins of which are still to be found, having been demolished, a new temple of Krishna and Râdhikâ was built by a Bairâgî of Brij, whose chêlâs hold it in succession from him.

- (7) At Jamni, 12 miles west of Safîdôn, are a temple and tank of Jamadagni, father of Paraśurâma. People bathe in the tank on Sundays and the pūrṇamāsi or 15th of every month. The temple is in the charge of a Shâmî of the Râmânandî Order and has a muāfi of 80 bighās of land attached to it.
- (8) At Âsân, which is at a distance of 14 miles in the south-west of Safîdôn, is an ancient tank, called Aśvîni-Kumâra after the god in whose honour a Rishi did penance there. The legend in the Vâmana Purâna goes that an ugly Rishi, being laughed at in the assembly of the sages, did penance and invoked the god Aśvini-Kumâra, who appeared before him, and bestowed on him beauty, saying, "be beautiful after bathing in this tank." Hence bathing in it on Tuesday is believed to enhance one's beauty.
- (9) At Baráh Kalán, which is 17 miles southwest of Safidôn, are the tank and temple of Barâhjî Bhagwân, commemorating Vishnu's vardha or boar incarnation.

The fair is held on the 11th and 12th of Bhâdôn sudi. Bathing in the tank and worshipping the god Barâh are believed to secure the highest place in heaven.

(ii) The Chandra-kûpa or Moon-well Tirtha, built in honour of the Moon (Sômâ Dêva), is an ancient cave in which water collects in the rainy season, and in this water the Moon is supposed to have bathed His evil influence is averted by bathing here on the 11th and 12th of Bhâdôn sudi or on a Monday.

- (iii) The Sapta-Rishi Kund or Tank of the Seven Rishis. The legend in the Tilak Gyán Granth is that the seven Rishis, Ranbukâ, &c., came here after visiting the tirthas or tanks of Kurukshêtra, and made their kuti (resting-place) and hawan-kund here. After a time they went to Pindârak (Pindâra). It is of spiritual benefit to bathe in it on the days mentioned above or on any sacred day.
- (iv) A Sûraj Kund, bathing in which is as meritorious as performing worship at an eclipse of the sun. The bathing day is Sunday.
- (v) A Chandra Kund, to bathe in which is equal to worshipping at an eclipse of the moon. The bathing day is Monday.
- (10) At Pindára, which is 20 miles southwest of Safidôn, is another Sôma Tìrtha, with a temple of Sômêśvara Mahâdêva, sacred to the moon and the planet Sukra (Venus). This tank is visited by many thousands of people, often from distant places, at a sômáwati amáwas or a Monday which falls on the day before a new moon, and a fair is also held on the 13th and 14th badi both in Phågun and Sâwan.

At a sômáwati amáwas pilgrims offer pindas, balls of rice-flour, for the benefit of deceased ancestors, which is as efficacious as a pilgrimage to Gayâ. Alms offered on such an occasion are also equal in merit to the performance of a Rájasúya Yajña.

(11) The temple of Jayanti Dêvi or Goddess of Victory at Jind, which owes its name to this temple, and which is 22 miles south-west of Safîdôn, was built by Yudhishthira and his brothers, the Pandavas, before their fight with the Kauravas. A tank called the Sûraj Kund lies in front of the temple and is now filled with canal water. On the tank of Sômanâtha, in the town of Jind, are the temples of Mahadeva, called the Sômêśvara Śivâlaya and Mansâ Dêvî. The tank derives its name from the Moon-god, Sôma, and by bathing in it one can reach the moon. On another tank, called the Jawalmal Iśwara, is another Sivâlaya of Mahâdêva bearing the same name as the tank. Bathing here is believed to free the soul from the door (bonds) of transmigration.

The Asankhya Tirtha is an ancient tank, so called because countless (asankhya) rishis are

said to have worshipped there. To bathe in it on a sacred day (parab) is equivalent to a pilgrimage to Badrî Nâth. Washing in the Aśani Dhârâ Tîrtha, also an extremely ancient tank, cleanses from sin if performed on a Thursday

In Samvat 1903 Râjâ Sarûp Singh built the Râj Râjêśvarî or Lord of the State Temple at Jînd. The fair is held on the 1st to the 9th of Chait and Asauj sudi.

(12) At Barâh-ban<sup>2</sup> is a temple to Grâhî Dêvî, who was a yâhshanî, of Grâhâ Rishi. A fair is held on the 7th and 8th of Chait and Asauj sudi. It is believed to avert sins.

This village also contains a very old tank called the Kirt Sauch or place of hand-washing, so called because Narasimha, the lion incarnation of Vishnu, killed the daitya or demon Hiranyaksha at this spot and washed his hands and feet in it. It is beneficial to bathe in it on a parab, and to do so is equivalent to performing a pundrik yajna.

Here, too, is an ancient tank called the Punpunya, so called because Narasimha washed his hands in it a second time after killing Hiranyaksha. Bathing in it is as efficacious as bathing in the Kirt Sauch, while it also makes the bather more prudent.

- (13) At Tkas, which is 25 miles off Safîdôn in the south-west direction, is the Hamsa, or Swan tank, also called the Dhûndû or 'seeking,' because here Krishna, after escaping from the Gôpîs, concealed himself in the guise of a Swan (Hamsa is a symbol for soul), while they sought him in the same shape. It is customary to bathe in it on a Sunday in Sâwan, or on any parab. Bathing in it is believed to equal in merit a gift (punya) of 1,000 cows.
- (14) Ram Rai, which is at a distance of 28 miles in the south-west direction, is also a village of peculiar sanctity.

It contains:-

(i) A temple to Paraśurâma, adjoining which are the Râm Hṛid,³ Sûraj Kund and San Hitha. The Râm Hṛid or Temple of Paraśu Râma marks the spots where that hero destroyed the Kshatriyas. The legend in the Mahābhārata goes that Parasurāma killed Sahasra Bāhā (thousandarmed) with all his sons and sēna, 'army,' and filled five Kunds with blood, bathed himself in them and offered til-anjalī to his deceased father, Jamadagni, saying, 'It is the blood of those who killed you and took away your kāmadhēnu cow.' Then Parašurāma took up his axe, and began slaughtering Kshatriyas, while the San Hitha is midway between it and Sūraj Kund.

People bathe in these tanks on the 15th sudi of Kârtik and Baisâkh, after which they worship in the temple which contains images of Paraśurâma and his parents Jamadagni and Rambûkâ, feed Brâhmans and give alms to the poor. Also at the eclipse of the sun they bathe in the San Hitha tank and at the eclipse of the moon in the Râm Hrid, by doing so they believe that they will reach Svarga (paradise).

- (ii) The temple of Kapila Yaksha is in the south-west of Râm Râi. The Yaksha was a door-keeper of the Kurukshêtra. The temple is worshipped on the same days, and is in the charge of a Kanphatâ Jôgî.
- (iii) The temple of Anôkhâlî Mêkhalâ Dêvî, who was the yakshanî of Kapila Yaksha, is in the charge of a Gaur Brâhman. A fair is held on the same days.
- (15) At Pohkar Khêrî, which is 29 miles southwest of Safîdôn, in the south-west of the village is a tank of Pushkarjî, with a temple of Mahâdêva. The name Pôhkar is from Pushkara, meaning "great purifier." It is related that Paraśuiama collected all the śaktis (powers) of gods and influences of all the Tîrthas.

Here Brahmâ, Vishņu and Mahêśa worshipped, and there is a special worship of Mahâdêva on the 13th and 14th badi of Phâgun and Sâwan, while bathing here on 15th sudi of Kârtik or Baisâkh (each a súraj-parab, or day sacred to the sun) is equivalent to performing an aśvamédha or horse-sacrifice.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Barâh-ban is 24 miles south-west of Safîdôn.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Râm Hrid is a place where Parasurâma was pleased to the heart, Râm standing for Parasurâma, and hrid meaning heart.

# NOTICE.

THE remainder of the English version of Dr. BÜHLER'S INDIAN PALEOGRAPHY, — about 24 pages, — will be issued with the Index, &c., of the current Volume.

#### TATTOOING IN CENTRAL INDIA.

BY CAPTAIN C. E. LUARD, M.A.,

Superintendent of Ethnography in Central India.

(Concluded from p. 289.)

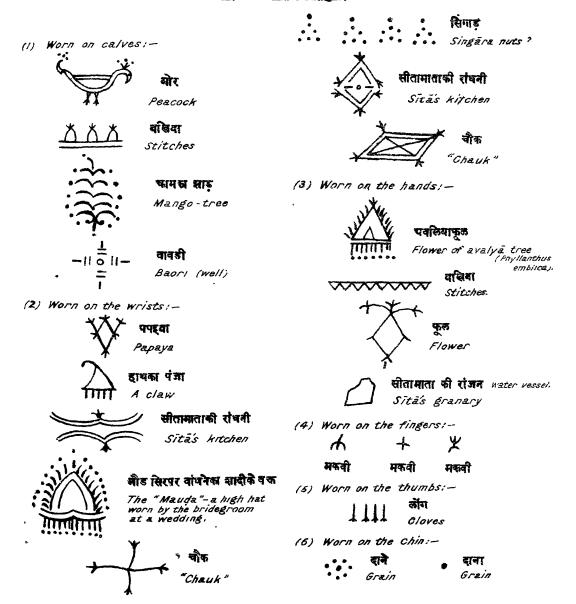
#### III.

#### THE JUNGLE SECTION.

1. Tattoo Marks from the Jobat State.

(Collected by Rai Bahadur Vamon Rao Bapuji of Jobat.)

A. - Female Marks.



#### Women's Marks - (contd.)

- (7) Worn on the cheeks:-
  - दाने *6 rain*
- (8) Worn at the corners of the eyes -



(9) Worn between the eyebrows:-

ं डीक्री "Tifra"

(10) Worn on the toes. -

दाने Grain,

B Male Marks

(1) Worn on the wrists:-



(3) Worn on the fingers:-

+++ मस्त्री

(4) Worn on the arms:-



(2) Worn on the hands: -

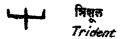




चौड "Chauk "

|||| वादलके दाने Rice-grain.

विश्वया
 Stitches



(5) Worn on the chest:-



जमजो आदमी का नान Man's name.

(6) Worn on the corners of the eyes:-



# 2. Tattoo Marks from Barwani State.

( Collected by Mr. K. M. Phatak of Barwani.)

# (a) Khandesh Bhils.

(Plate VII.)

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body.		Male or female.		Name of the sign.		Meaning.
*	Khāndēsh Bhīls	•••	On shoulder	•••	Male	•••	Chauk, चौक	••	Square.
X	Do.	•••	Do.	•••	Do.	٠	Iśī, <b>इशी</b>	<b></b> .	

#### (b) Mālī Bhīls.

(Plate VIII.)

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign,	Meaning.
***	Mālī Bhīl	•••	On the shoulder	Male	Katiyār, कटियार	Dagger.
+	Do.	•••	Near the eye	Do	Triśūl, त्रिशूल	Trident.
<b>5</b> :	Do.	•••	On cheek	Do	Kallâ, क्लझ	Bangle.
Ψ	Do.	• ».	On forehead	Do	Kamâṇ, कसाण	Bow.

#### (c) Charans.

(Plate IX.)

Signs.	Caste.	Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
00-0 <i>0</i>	Charan	On forehead	Male	Mālā, मान्ता	Rosary.
حرث	Do	On wrist	Do	Katiyār, कटियार	Dagger.
70.75.	Do	On forehead	Do	Hār, हार	Wreath.

## (d) Ningwals.

## (Plate X.)

Signs.	Caste. Part of the body.		Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
Ψ	Ningwāl	On forehead or arms	Male	Ām kā Jhād, श्चामका झाड	Mango-tree.
$\infty$	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Dānk, cian	A sort of drum.
0	Do	. Do	Do	Kūwā, कूवा	Well.

## (e) Soliā Bhīls.

# . [Plate XI.]

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body.		Male or female.		Name of the sign.		Meaning.
	Soliā Bhīl	••	On forehead	**	Male	-	Hār, <b>हार</b>	••	Garland.
6	Do.	**-	Near the eye	••	Do.	•••	Kamāṇ, क्रमाण	٠.	Bow.
The state of the s	Do.	•••	On the chest		Do.		Ghōdā, ঘাঁভা	•••	Horse.
)	Do.	••	Near the eye	••	Do.	•••	Khaṭā, स्वता	•••	A mark placed for beautifying the face.

## (f) Bhilalas.

# (Plate XII.)

Signs.	Caste.	Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
Ш	Bhilālā	On forehead or between wrist and elbow.	Female	Ām ka Jhāḍ, श्रामका झाड़	Mango-tree.
<del>((</del>	Do	Near the eye	Do	Chirliyā, चिरत्निया	Feathers.
• • •	Do	On the chin or on the chest.	Do	Phūl, फूल	Flower.
******	Do.	On any part of the body and by any caste.	Do	Țipkā, दिपका	Spots.

# (f) Bhilalas—(contd.).

Signs.	Caste.		Caste. Part of the body,		Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
.÷.	Bhilālā	••	On the front portion of the leg near the ankle.	Female	Kațār, कटार	Dagger.	
****	Do.	••	Do	Do	Maud, मौड़	Coronet worn by the bridegroom.	

# (g) Kachis.

# (Plates XIII. and XIV.)

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
W.	Kāchi	••	On either side of the portion between elbow and wrist.		Sītā kī Rānḍnī, सीताकी रांदनी	Boiler of Sītā.
	Do.	••-	Do	Do	Sītā kā hāth, सीताका हाथ-	Sītā's hand.
界界	Do.	•••	Do,	Do	Rām and Lachhman, राम व ज्लालमन	Rāma and Lachhman.
124	$\mathrm{Do}_{ullet}$	••-	On thumb	Do	Bichchū, विच्छू	Scorpion.
2	$D_{0_{\bullet}}$	•••	On fingers	Do	Java, <b>जद</b>	Barley.
*	Do.	•••	On the back of the leg.	Do	Ām kā Jhāḍ, स्नामका साड़•	Mango-tree.

# (h) Tadvī Bhilālās.

# (Plate XV.)

Sign.	Caste.	Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
4	Tadvi	Near the eye	Female	Chirliyā, चिरातिया	Feathers.
Ď,	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Katiyār, कटियार	Dagger.

(h)	Tadvī	Bhilalas-	(contd.)	).
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Signs.	Caste.	Part of the body	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
\$	Taḍvī ,.	Between wrist and elbow.	Fem <b>a</b> le	Chōhmal, चोंमळ	wound round the
<	Do	Near the eye	Do	Chirliyā, चिरत्तिया	head for carry ing weights. Feathers.
\$V\$	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Chauk Bakhiyādār, चौकबखियादार.	Square in the form of stitches.
	Do	Do	Do	Chauk, चैाक	Square.
*	Do	On the leg near the ankle.	Do		A coronet for the bridegroom.
<b>)</b> -	Do	Near the eye	Do		Feathers.
*	Do	On the back of the palm.	Do	Chauk, चौक	Square.
<b>→</b>	Do	Near the eye	Do	Chirliyā, चिरित्वया	Feathers.
wiii	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Bakhiyā, <b>बांखया</b> .	Stitch.
	Do	Do	Do	Chauk, चौक	Square.
#	, Do	On the back of the leg.	Do.	Chauk, चौक	Do.
iÇ:	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Chōimaļ, चॉमळ	A. cloth wound round the
*	Do	On forehead	Do J	<sup>Jhāḍ,</sup> <b>साड्</b> 1	head for carrying weights.

## (i) Chohan Bhils.

(Plate XVI.)

Signs.	Caste.	Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
ď,	Chohān Bhīl	On arms or chest	Male	Ādmī, ऋाइमी	Man.
Ų,	Do	On forehead	Do	Amkā Jhād, ऋामका- झाड्-	Mango-tree.
<b>;</b> ;	До	Near the eye	Do	Khatā, खता	A line or mark for beauti- fying the face.

# (j) Meghwäls.

(Plates XVII., XVIII., and XIX.)

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body		Male	or	T	1
	J.		Part of the body	•	fema.		Name of the sign.	Meaning.
\$	Meghwāl	•••	On the back of he between wrist a elbow.	and and	Female	••	Kațārī, कटारी	Dagger.
# • * * • • *	Do.		Do.	•	Do.	•••	Dānā, दाना	Beads.
<b>%</b>	Do.		On wrist or elbow		Do.	•••	Mahadō or Mōdūdū, मोडूड्र	A seat for Mahādev.
	Do.		Between wrist as elbow.	nd	Do.	•••	Modūdū, मोडूडू	Do.
0	Do.		Do.		Do.	•••	Mōḍ, मोड	Wheel.
**	Do.		Do.		Do.		Mākhī, माखी	Fly.
	Do.		Do.		Do.		Phūl, फूल	Flower.

(j) Meghwāls—(contd.).

(00.000)									
Signs,	Caste.		Part of the body	•			Name of the sig	n.	Meaning.
<b>;</b>	Meghwāl	•••	On the back of palm.	the	Female	•••	Chonbal, चींबद्ध	•••	A cloth wound round the head for lifting weights.
(Ca	Do.	••.	On the back of thumb.	the	Do.	••.	Bakhiyā, <b>बलिया</b>	••	Stitch.
	Do.	***	Do.	••	Do.	•••	Chonbal, चौंबल	•••	A cloth wound round the head for carrying weights.
¥:.	Do.	•••	On forehead	•	Do.	•••	Hâr, हार		Garland.
÷	Do.	•	On the back of foot, near the an	the kle.	Do.		Bāvḍī, बावडी	•••	Well.
*	Do.	•••	between wrist a elbow; on back hand; or near	and	Do.	•••	Māṇas, माणस	•	Man.
	Do.	•••	On elbow	<b>\$</b>	Do.	••	Wēṇā, <b>वेजा</b>	•	Water- stand.
•	Do.	•	On wrist	•	Do.	•••	Kāṭhruṭ, काथरूट		Flower of Lotus.
	Do.	•••	On fingers of han or elbows.	ds	Do.	••· :	Mākhī, <b>माखी</b>		Fly.
	Do.		Between wrist a elbow; on back the hand.	nd of	Do.		Þēvфī, <b>डेवडी</b>	•••	An orna- ment for the head.
<b>~</b>	Do.		On wrist	•••	Do.		Sākaļ, साकळ	•••	Chain.
<b>-</b>	Do.		Near the ankle				Lāḍvā, नाडुवा		Cross.
		Do.  Do.  Do.  Do.  Do.  Do.  Do.  Do.	Do Do Do Do Do Do Do Do	Do On the back of palm.  Do On the back of thumb.  Do On forehead  Do On elbow; new between wrist elbow; on back hand; or near ankle.  Do On wrist  Do On fingers of han or elbows.  Do On wrist a elbow; on back the hand.  Do On wrist	Do On the back of the palm.  Do On the back of the thumb.  Do On forehead  Do On elbow; neck; between wrist and elbow; on back of hand; or near the ankle.  Do On wrist  Do On fingers of hands or elbows.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do On wrist	Meghwal On the back of the palm.  Do On the back of the thumb.  Do On forehead Do.  Do On the back of the foot, near the ankle.  Do On elbow; neck; between wrist and elbow; on back of hand; or near the ankle.  Do On wrist Do.  Do On fingers of hands or elbows.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do On wrist Do.	Do On the back of the palm.  Do On the back of the thumb.  Do Do Do  Do On forehead Do  Do On the back of the foot, near the ankle.  Do On elbow; neck; between wrist and elbow; on back of hand; or near the ankle.  Do On wrist Do  Do On fingers of hands or elbows,  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do On wrist Do	Meghwal On the back of the palm.  Do On the back of the thumb.  Do On forehead Do Bakhiyā, बिख्या thumb.  Do On the back of the foot, near the ankle.  Do On elbow; neck; between wrist and elbow; on back of hand; or near the ankle.  Do On wrist Do Kāṭhruṭ, काथरूट Do Mākhī, मास्ती  Do On fingers of hands or elbows.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do Do Mākhī, मास्ती  Do Dō Sākaļ, साकळ	Meghwāl On the back of the palm. Chonbal, चांबच  Do On the back of the thumb.  Do Do Do Chonbal, चांबच  Do On forehead Do Hâr, हार  Do On the back of the foot, near the ankle.  Do On elbow; neck; between wrist and elbow; on back of hand; or near the ankle.  Do On wrist Do Kāṭhruṭ, काथकट  Do On fingers of hands or elbows.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do Between wrist and elbow; on back of the hand.  Do Sākaļ, साकळ

Plate VII.

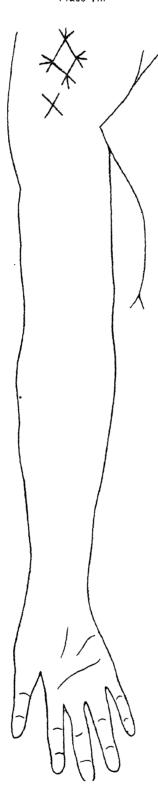
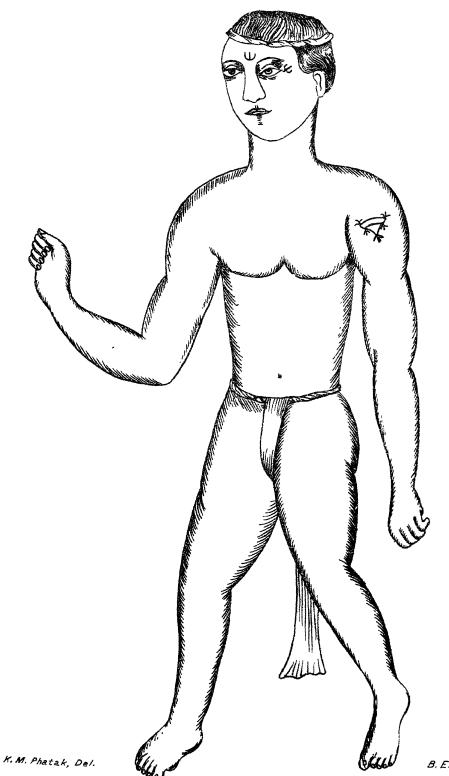


Plate VIII.



B. E. S. Press, Litho.

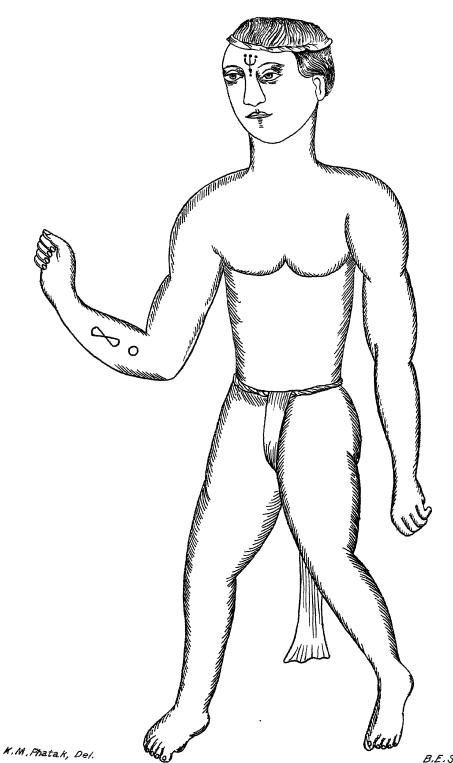
Plate IX.



Plate IX.

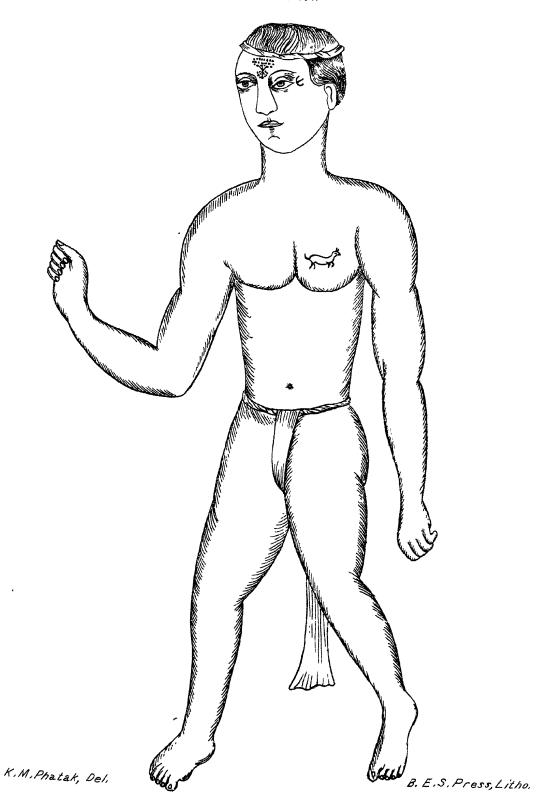


Plate X.



B.E.S. Press, Litho

Plate XI.



BHILALAS.

Plate XII.

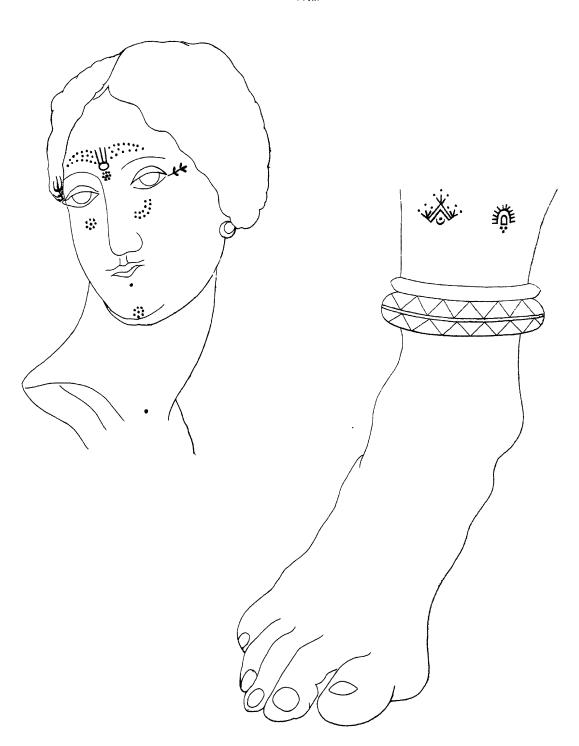
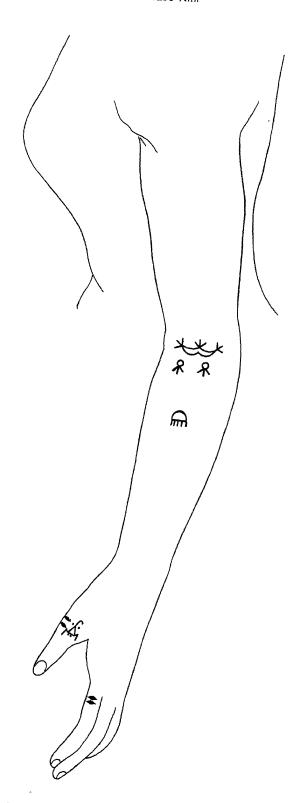


Plate XIII.



KĂCHĪ.

Plate XIV.

Back of Leg.

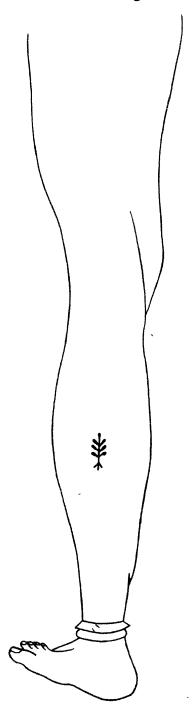
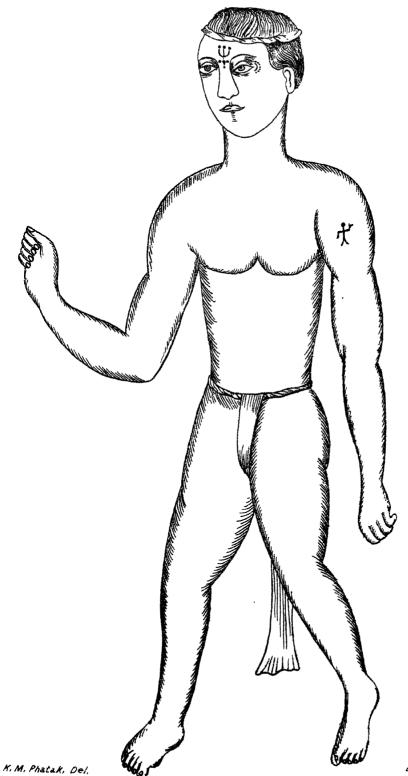




Plate XV.



Plate XVI.



B. E. S Press, Litho.

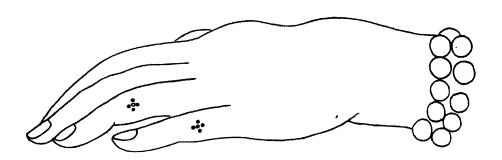




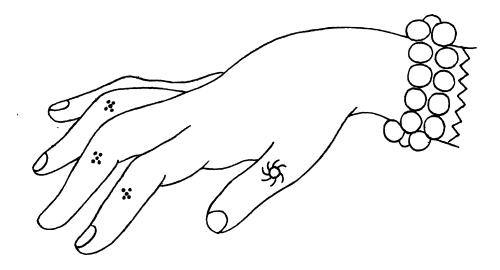
MEGHWALS.

Plate XVIII.

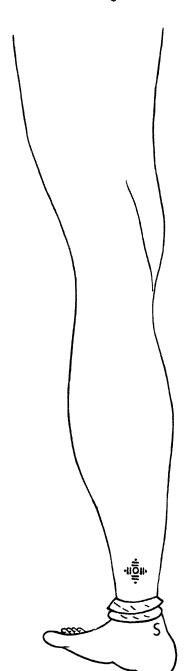
Left Hand.



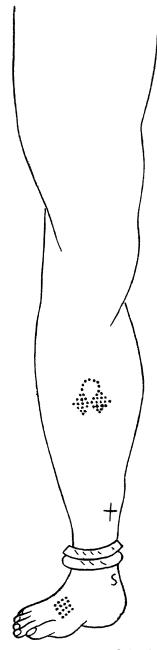
Right Hand.



Back of Leg



Front of Leg.



K.M. Phatak, Del.

B.E.S Press, Litha

## CHOKHARIA MANKAR

## Plate XX.

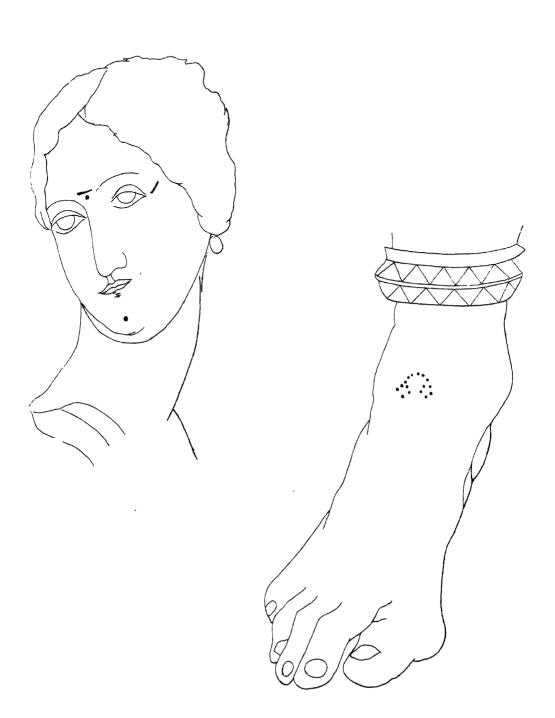
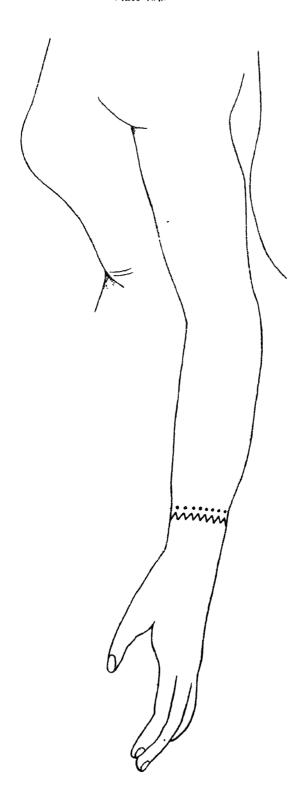


Plate XXI.



## (j) Meghwals-(contd).

Signs.	Caste.		Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
* The state of the	Meghwāl .	••	Between wrist and elbow.	Feniale	Maur, मौर	Peacock.
6 8 0 8 60 4 6 8 6 8 7 0 6	Do	•••	On the foot	Do	Bājūt, बाजूट	A sort of stool.
	Do	•	On front portion of the leg.	Do	Modudu, मांडूडू	Seat for the God Ma- hadev.
SS	Do	$\cdot  $	Near the ankle	Do	Jalō, जुली	Leeches.

## (k) Chokhariā Mankars.

## (Plates XX. and XXI.)

Signs.	Caste.	Part of the body.	Male or female.	Name of the sign.	Meaning.
*******	Chokhariā Mankar.	Between the two eye- brows.	Female	Rēkh, रेख	Line.
	Do	Near the eye	Do	Nainnā, नैंना	Eye.
iiiii	Do	Between wrist and elbow.	Do	Bakhiyā, <b>बखिया</b> .	Stitch.
	Do	On cheek, chin or between brows.	Do	Dānā, द्याना	Beads.

# HOW THE TEMPORAL POWER OF THE DALAI LAMA WAS FOUNDED. BY L. DE MILLOUÉ.

Translation of a Lecture at the Musée Guimet, 21st January 1900.1

Ir need neither startle us, nor is it an exaggeration to state, that everywhere and always, the priesthood has been led to lay its hand on the temporal power and to subordinate the lay-government to the religion. The most important exception to this assertion is that of Greece, where it has never since historic times played or attempted to play what seems a leading part. But of all the countries of the world, the one where sacerdotal power is most deeply and firmly established is Tibet. No other place in the world could be so favorable to a theocracy, given the profound ignorance of the people, their misery, their eminently religious character, and their inveterate leaning to superstition.

Since its introduction into this country in 630 of our era, under the reign of Sron-btsan-sGam-po, to the middle of the 17th century, the existence of the Buddhist clergy has been simply a continued

<sup>1</sup> From Conférences au Musée Guimet, 1899-1901, par L. de Milloué, Paris, 1903, pp. 71-88. - J. B.

struggle for supremacy, a struggle from which it arose conqueror, instituting an absolutely theocratic government, which offers curious resemblances to the principles and organisation of the old Roman pontifical government. I am about to try to sketch the various phases of this struggle which are as instructive as they are interesting.

But first, it is necessary to say a word on the Tibetan monk — the Lama, his character, and where it differs from other Buddhist monks.

Buddhism, when it penetrated into Tibet, was very different from the philosophic sect, with atheistic tendencies, without gods, without cult or rites, formerly founded by Buddha Sâkyamuni. Not only had it become an actual religion, in consequence of the deification of its master, and of the cult instituted in his honour and the adoration of his relics; not only had it been penetrated by mysticism and blind devotion to the Yoga and the Vedânta; not only had it invented the eternal Buddha—essence and being of all things—the Adi-Buddha conceived on the model of the Brâhman Svayambhû, the crowd of Buddhas past, present, and future, as well as the Bodhisattvas "of three thousand thousands of worlds," but it had also received into its bosom all the male and female divinities of Brahmanism, especially of the Saiva sect, and, under the unfortunate influence of the Tantric doctrines, had given a predominant place to divination, astrology, sorcery, and magic. Thus exploiting the superstitious ignorance of the Tibetans, and their terror for demons, by which they believed themselves to be surrounded, it was as exorcists and expert magicians, rather than as apostles of a pure morale, that the first fathers of Buddhism are represented, and it was by sorcery rather than the preaching of the Good Law that they conquered and dispossessed their rivals, the Shamans of the indigenous religion or Bonpa, of the confidence of the people.

Lama (in Tibetan bLa-ma, "superior") is a title equivalent to the Sanskrit term Guru or Âchârya, which ought to be regularly applied only to a religious person renowned for his knowledge and his sanctity, but which is frequently given by courtesy and respect to all the members of the Tibetan and Mongol clergy (the real titles of the different classes being: lama, "superior";  $dG\hat{e}$ -sloin, "ordained priest";  $dG\hat{e}$ -thsûl, "deacon"; and  $dG\hat{e}$ -bsnyen, "novice") as with us that of abbot.

The Lama then, to give him the title by which he is habitually known, differs from the *Bhikshu* or Indian devotee, in that he is not simply a contemplative monk, but really a priest, invested as he is by ordination obtained, after a long novitiate and serious studies, which confers upon him special powers, notably that of taking part at ceremonies of the cult, at the initiation and ordination of new monks.

But the Lama is not only a priest. In the midst of this ignorant people who surround him with a superstitious veneration and fear, he is the universal man, the savant par excellence: he is educator, teacher, (the monasteries are the only schools,) doctor, literary man, astrologer, sorcerer, architect, sculptor, painter, printer, and even merchant. He is not, indeed, compelled, like the Bhikshu, to take the vow of poverty, but may possess a personal fortune and can increase it by all possible means, even by usury.

The Lamas are divided into two classes: the orthodox ones or decligs-pas, also called yellow Lamas from the colour of their costume, and the rNyig-ma-pas or red Lamas; these again are subdivided into several sects, of which many permit marriage among their adherents. They are extremely numerous in consequence of the custom of dedicating at least one son from each family to the religious life, a custom which is explained by the fact that the Lamas hold all functions — in fact, if not by right. It has been said that, by themselves, they constitute a seventh or eighth part of the entire population of Tibet.

For the most part they live in monasteries, vast conglomerations of houses surrounded by walls, some of which accommodate several thousand monks; veritable universities, where the people come from all parts of the country to study the religious sciences under renowned masters. These

monasteries, enriched by royal donations, and by the pious gifts of the lay-population, possess large tracts of rich land, managed by their steward or treasurer, which they increase, not only by trading with the produce of their lands, but also by devoting themselves to all kinds of commerce; almost all the export, import, and transport trade is thus in the hands of the Lamas.

It is easy to understand what importance such wealth gives to the superiors or abbots of the great monasteries, even from a political point of view. Thus the ecclesiastical history of Tibet is entirely filled with tales of rivalries and struggles, sometimes sanguinary, between the abbots of the more important monasteries, especially when they belong to different sects. But although they are jealous of one another, they are wise enough to cease tearing one another to pieces in order to seize any scrap of power from the civil authority and afterwards to divide the booty.

Toward the commencement of the 18th century, the leading position was held by the sect named Sa-skya-pa, from the name of its principal monastery. A monk of this sect, surnamed Phags-pa, sent as a missionary to Mongolia, finding himself by chance on the route of the illustrious Khubilai Khân, when he was about to invade China, prophesied that he would gain the victory and the empire. Becoming master of the Chinese empire, and emperor, Khubilai remembered the monk and his prediction and called him to his court (Târânâtha, the official historian of Tibetan Buddhism, says that, 'Phags-pa, being dead, it was his nephew and successor Lo-dai Gyaltsan, who came to the court of Khubilai). It is from this epoch that the expansion of Lamaism in China dates. But the emperor's recognition was not limited to empty honours. By decree he conferred on 'Phags-pa and his successors, as superiors of the Sa-skya sect, the religious and political sovereignty of Tibet, but without suppressing the king of that country, who continued to govern it under the authority, more nominal than real, of the Sa-skya-pa priests.

Besides a doubtful recognition, political causes may be assigned to the act of Khubilai: on the one hand, the desire to flatter his Mongol subjects, for the most part Lamaists; on the other, the hope of putting an end to the continual incursions of the Tibetans into Chinese territory. In fact, from this moment dates Chinese influence in Tibet.

The successors of Khubilai continued his policy with regard to Tibet and Lamaism, but do not appear to have attained the desired end, for, under their rule, the incursions of the Tibetaus were more frequent and more audacious than ever, to say nothing of the difficulties stirred up by the tyranny of the Sa-skya-pa sect, over their rivals, and notably the burning of the Kargyutpa monastery of Dikung in 1320. Thus the dynasty of the Mings (1368—1616), which succeeded them, changed its policy with regard to Tibet. It set itself to diminish the power of the Sa-skya-pa sect, which was much too great, by giving to the abbots of the monasteries of Dikung (of the Kargyutpa sect) and of Ts'al (of the Khadampa sect), a rank and authority equal to those of the Grand Lama of Sa-skya by cleverly exciting their rivalry, by covering with honours and by granting pensions to the chief men of the country in order to bind them to themselves.

About this time, in 1355 at Khum-bum, in the district of Am-do, was born the celebrated bTson-kha-pa, who, indignant at the vice and corruption of the monks of his time, at the superstitious practices, and the rites of sorcery, which degraded Lamaïsm, undertook to re-call it to the purity of primitive Buddhism, promptly gathered together, under the name of the dGe-lugs-pa sect, a number of disciples, to whom, in order to distinguish them, he gave a yellow costume (the other Lamas were dressed in red) and founded in 1409 the monastery of dGa-ldan, of which he remained superior until his death in 1417.

It is commonly, though erroneously, said, that &Tson-kha-pa was the first Dalai Lama. He never had any title but that of dGa-ldan, as also had his successor dGe-'dun-grub. This title and dignity only appeared during the pontificate of Nag-dban &Lo-bzan the fourth successor of the latter (1617—1680).

Profoundly ambitious, a clever politician, marvellously advised by his old teacher the abbot of Tashi-lhuapo, Nag-dban bLo-bzan knew how to exploit with acuteness the growing power of the dGe-lugs-pa, and the popularity of bTson-kha-pa was kept alive in all classes of society. Taking vigorously in hand the interests of his sect, which he identified with those of religion, he did not hesitate to enter into open conflict with the king of Tibet, and, under pretext of the safety of religion, menaced in its purity by the tyranny of this king, the protector of the red Lamas, he asked assistance from Guchi-Khân, prince of the Koshot Mongols, who, after having vanquished and deposed the king, made a present of Tibet to the astute Nag-dban bLo-bzan.

The latter then assumed the dignity of rGyal-ba Rin-po-che, "Precious Majesty," and the Mongol title Salaï, "Ocean (of Grandeur)," in Tibetan rGya-mtsho, which Europeans have transformed into "Dalaï-Lama," titles which, in order to create for himself a sort of genealogy, he extended to dGe-'dun-grub, who thus became the first Dalaï Lama, and at the same time he gave his counsellor, the abbot of Tashi-lhunpo, the first place after himself in the ecclesiastical hierarchy, with the title of Paṇ-chhen Rin-po-ché, and handed over to him in appanage the vassal sovereignty of the province of Tsang.

Thus it is believed that Nag-dban bLo-bzan was the inventor of the fiction of the perpetual incarnation of the Dhyâni-Bodhisattva Chanrési (Avalokiteávara) in the person of the Dalai Lamas and that of the Dhyâni Buddha 'Od-dpag-med (Amitâbha) in the Pan-chhen Rin-po-chês, thus giving to these great persons a sort of divine relationship, an example which was immediately followed by all the superiors of the larger monasteries except that of dGa-ldan, who called themselves perpetual incarnations of the Bodhisattva Mañjuśrî, the god or saint, patron of their sect or of their convent.

The theory of incarnation was not in itself a novelty. From time immemorial it has been said in India, perhaps simply as a manner of speech, that illustrious men, especially in the religious order, were incarnations of such or such a god or saint, personifying the chief qualities by which they were known (a metaphor borrowed, doubtless, from the avatârs of Vishnu), and in Tibet even the king Sron-btsan-sgam-po, who introduced Buddhism into that country, was considered as an incarnation of Chanrêsi and his minister Thu-mi Sambhota passed as an avatâr of 'Jam-dpal (Mañjuśrî), the patron Bodhisattva of Science. What is new is the ingenious idea of the perpetuity of incarnation. It may surprise us that Nag-dban bLo-bzan made himself the incarnation of a simple Bodhisattva, while he attributed to his counsellor that of an eternal Buddha. But it must not be forgotten that Chanrêsi is the usual patron of Tibet; the clever Dalai Lama thus benefited by the popularity of this divine person and at the same time created for himself a divine relationship with the first sovereign of the country, which justified his pretensions to royal power. On the other hand, if we remember, that all the sacred books of India call the counsellor the "spiritual father" of his disciples, it becomes quite natural that Nag-dba blo-bzan should make his instructor the incarnation of 'Od-dpag-med the spiritual father of Chanrêsi.

In consequence of the doctrine of perpetual incarnation, the Dalai Lamas, the Pan-chhen Rin-pochès and the other incarnated Lamas never die. When the body of a Dalai Lama is worn out by sickness or old age, the god, whose spirit animates it, quits the body to seek for another in better health; in other words, becomes incarnate in the course of from one to four years in some young infant, who, by miracles, reveals his divine nature and thus manifests himself. As soon as informed of the re-incarnation of Chanrêsi, the sacred college of the mKhan-pos send a commission to the dwelling of the parents of the infant, charged to subject him to a series of trials, such as, for example, to recognise, from among other similar objects, those made use of by preference by the former Dalai Lama, and if he comes successfully out of it he is carried in great pomp to the pontifical palace, where he receives an education befitting the high rank which he is to occupy. Matters take place naturally in the same way in the case of Pan-chhen Rin-po-chê or of any other incarnated Lama or living Buddha.

But to return to Nag-dban & Lo-bzan. The gift, which Guchi-Khân had made to him of Tibet conquered by his arms, constituted merely a possession in fact, not by absolute right, and he might with reason fear, that he would be dispossessed of it, either by a revolt stirred up by the dethroned king, or by an intervention of his powerful neighbour, the Chinese empire. Thus he hastened, at the risk of compromising the independence of Tibet, to send an ambassador to the emperor Saï-tsung Oen-Hoang, to recognise him as spiritual and temporal sovereign of Tibet, as a tributary title, and on the condition that henceforth the election of the Dalaï Lamas should be confirmed by the court of Pekin. On his side Guchi-Khân received the title of viceroy, with charge of the political administration of the kingdom (1642). Some years later, in 1662, this official acknowledgment was confirmed anew by the emperor Khang-hi, after the suppression of several revolts, which necessitated the intervention of the Chinese armies.

Nag-dban bLo-bzan died in 1680. His death was kept secret for 16 years by the viceroy of the time, who used this interregnum in order to attempt to seize the sovereign authority. But this becoming known, provoked the intervention of the Mongol chief Lhazang-Khan, who proceeded to elect the sixth Dalai Lama, soon deposed however, in consequence of indignity and irregularities in his election, following close upon the revolt, raised under pretext of restoring religion, by a chief of a tribe named Tsé-Oang Arabdan. These disorders provoked another interference on the part of the emperor Khang-hi, who proceeded, with the help of his army, to the proclamation and definite enthronement of the sixth Dalai Lama — bLo-bzan sKal-ldan (1705—1758).

In 1750 a new revolt against the authority of the Dalaï Lama, incited by the viceroy Gyurmed Namgyal, rendered the intervention of the emperor Kien-lung necessary, upon which the title and function of viceroy was suppressed, and the country entirely submitted to the absolute authority of the Dalaï Lama, 1751, the Chinese Government always reserving to itself the right of supervision and the direction of foreign relations entrusted to two Chinese functionaries invested, as a mark of honour, with the title of ambassador.

From this time the spiritual and temporal authority of the Dalaï Lamas² is no longer disputed and, except for small revolts of no consequence, they exercise in peace their double sovereignty under the protectorate of China; but for this tranquillity they paid the price of their independence. Little by little the Chinese Government has mixed more in the affairs of Tibet and has exercised an influence more and more marked on the elections of the Dalaï Lamas and the Paṇ-chhen Rïn-po-chês who are no longer chosen only in uninfluential, local and pious families in China. Under colour of showing his profound respect for them, the emperor grants them an annual sum, and they end by being merely docile instrument in the hands of China, of the functionaries of the Empire.

It is unnecessary to call attention to the striking resemblances existing between the two institutions of the Catholic Papacy and the pontificate of the Dalai Lamas. Like the Pope the Dalai Lama is a religious leader, whose decisions and orders, from a dogmatic and moral point of view, ought to be blindly accepted without discussion. He is infallible in virtue of the infallibility of the divine spirit, of whom he is the representative, the incarnation on earth. Like the Pope's, his jurisdiction extends to the boundaries of his kingdom, in Ladak, Nepâl, Bhutan, Sikhim, China (in Pekin alone there are thirteen Lama monasteries), Mongolia, Siberia among the Buriats, even in Russia among the hordes of Kirghises, — and he claims the universal imposition of it. He is invested with temporal power, as also was the Pope for long; and finally, another curious resemblance, — it was

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Dalai Lamas in succession to bLo-bzań sKal-ldan (1705—1758) were (Grünwedel, Mythol. des Buddhismus in Tibet, S. 205) as follows:—

bLo-bzań 'Jam-dpal (1759—1805);

bLo-bzan Lun-rtogs (1806-1815);

bLo-bzan Tshul-khrims (1817—1837);

bLo-bzań dGe-dmu (1838-1855);

bLo-bzan Phrin-las (1856-1874):

Nag-dban bLo-bzan Thub-ldan, 1875. — J. B.

Fol. 150. Theire buildings in this Generall are but of a very meane Sort built of bamboos and rattans, and Stand for ye most part Vpon Stilts of wood.

Fol. 158. ffrom ye West Coast of this Jsland [Sumatra] . . . . Rattans.

Fol. 172. the Executioners frapp the sticks togeather wth Splitt rattans.

See Yule, s. v. Rattan.

#### RINGO POOT.

Fol. 82. They [Portugals] make many Sorts of Sweetmeats vizt...... Ringo Roots. Not in Yule. [A very obscure form: probably means some form of ginger.]

## ROOMAULS.

See Yule, s. v. Roomauls, kerchiefs. [N. and E. has for 19th June, 1680, p. 24: "Cotton Romalls."]

#### ROUNDEL.

Fol. 41. his Retinue of Attendants and Menial Servants are in great number, he keeps. . . . Roundels.

Fol. 42. Roundels: Are in these Warme Climats very Necesarie, to keep ye O from Scorchinge a man, they may also and are Serviceable to keep ye raine off, most men of accompt maintaine one 2: or 3 roundelliers, whose office is onely to attend theire Masters Motion, they are Very light but of Exceedinge Stiffnesse, beinge for ye most part made of Rhinocerots hide, very decently painted and Guilded, with what flowrs they best admire, on ye inside exactly in ye midst thereof is fixed a Smooth handle (made of wood) by weh ye Roundeliere doth carry it, holdings it up with one hand a foot or more above his Master's head directings ye Centre thereof as Opposite to ye O as possibly he may . . . . . any man whatever, that will goe to ye Charge of it weh is noe great Matter may have one or more Catysols to attend him, but not a Roundell: Vulesse he be a Governour or One of ye Councell: The Same Custome ye English hold good amongst their own people whereby they may be distinguished by ye Natiues.

See Yule, s. v. Roundel. [A state umbrella, and a constant source of bickering in the old Anglo-Indian days. N. and E., p. 15, for 5th April 1680, has a valuable quotation here: — "To Verona's adopted son was given the name of Muddoo Verona and a Rundell to be carried over him in respect to the Memory of Verona."]

## RUPEE.

- Fol. 53. ffort S't Georg's . . . . Rupees are worth 0015 02s  $03\frac{1}{2}d$  . . . . . The Syam Ticull Values one rupee  $\frac{1}{4}$  or 00 03 07.
  - Fol. 64. great Store of treasure vizt Gold and Silver Rupees.
- Fol. 67. his revenue came to a lack vizt 100000 rupees . . . he Sent the Emperour 80 lacks of rupees.
- Fol. 70. his demands off Some were 10:20:30:40:50: thousand rupees. . . . The Nabob (Smileinge Vpon him) demandeth wth all Speed one lack of rupees ie: 100000: . . . . for he was robbed of 1500000: rupees in this his journey into  $y_{\cdot}^{\circ}$  Countrey . . . . he made many Apologies and feed Some of  $y_{\cdot}^{\circ}$  Nabob's councell: whereby he got off for 50000 Rupees.
- Fol. 71. now thought he had an Opportunitie fallen into his hand of acquireinge one lack or two of rups. . . . demanded noe lesse then 2 lack of Rupees.
- Fol. 80. with an addition of 100000: rupees towards Satisfaction for their great jujuries received at ye hands of this Governour's ffather.

- Fol. 82. A Very good Cow is Sold [at Hugly] for four Shillings Six pence Vizt 2 rupees, a good hogg for 3 of a Rupee, 45 or 50 fowls for one Rupee, 6: 7: and Sometimes 8 maund or rice for one Rupee.
- Fol. 86. ye poore Orixas, whoe Indeed I may well call poore... I have often been in theire Villages, and where there have been more then 20 families of them, they cold not all change one **Rupee** into cowries, whereby to be paid for a little milke or fish (or what else wee had of them) in ye currant moneys of this Kingdome & Orixa: and Arackan.
  - Fol. 86. [Cowries] agreat quantitie passe for one Rupee not lesse then 3200.
- Fol. 94. The Coyned Currant moneys of this Kingdome [Bengala] are rupees, halfe rupers and quarters . . . They also Coyne Rupees here of ye finest refined Gold, we are called Gold Moors . . . The Rupee att 00lb 02s 03d.
  - Fol. 102. yet they are as good here as ready Rupees.

See Yule, s. v. Rupee. [The above quotations are interesting as additional evidence that the form "rupee" had become fixed by the last quarter of the 17th Century.]

## ST. THOMAS'S MOUNT.

Fol. 29. Six miles to the Southwards of ffort S't Georges standeth Severall mountains pretty high ye One of we is called S't Thomas's Mount....... Vpon ye top of Mount S't Thomas growth neturally a very remarkable tree.

Not in Yule.

pp. 38, 39, 43.]

## ST. THOME.

- Fol. 25. A Naique that lived neare Mylapore viz! S'! Thomæ.
- Fol. 29. ye ffrench who in ye years 1672 tooks ye Citty S' Thomæ from ye Moor's forces.

  Not in Yule. [Now a part of Madras town. N. and E., 1680, has St. Thoma throughout

# SALAAM.

- Fol. 24. This Silly Creature . . . Salam'd to all her friends, Especially to y: Brachmans.
  - Fol. 73. and this he accompted a Salam.
  - Fal. 91. before whom they doe and must dance and Singe and make many Salams.
  - See Yule, s. v. Salaam. [ I know of no earlier instance of the use of "Salaam" as a verb.]

## SALEMPOORY.

- Fol. 134. The most Proper and beneficiall Commodities we are for this place [Janselone]: be . . . . Sallampores.
- Fol. 158. ffrom y? Coast of India and Choromandell are brought hither.... Longcloth Salampore's, white and blew.
- See Yule, s. v. Salempoory. [? Divinity. N. and E. p. 16, for 22nd April 1680: Salampores Blew, at 14 Pagodas per corge [score]—P. 17 for 6th May, "in Longcloth and Salampores for England." P. 24 for 19th June, "Salampores, fine: Salampores, ordinary." The Salampoory was probably therefore an article of a definite size, like the Palempore, or bed-spread.]

## SALLEETER.

Fol. 131. jmmediately they give it out that ye Salecters came up to ye towne in ye night and committed that and many more Villanies..... The Salecters are absolute Firatts and often cruiseinge about Janselone & Pullo Sambelon &c. Jsles neare this Shore [Malay Coast].

Fol. 144. Anno Dom: 1675: A Small Vessell belonginge to ye English was Sent from Achin hither [Queda] laden with very fine goods and was mett with ye Pirats commonly called Salleeters neare to ye Roade of Queda.

Not in Yule. [No doubt the Cellates of the Portuguese writers. See Crawford, Dict. of Indian Archipel., s. v. Malacca, p. 242 f.]

## SAMCAU.

Fol. 135. All the fruite this countrey [Janselone] affordeth is . . . Samcau . . . but noe fruit soe plenty here as the Plantan and Samcau whose figure here follow; [illustration]. The Samcau is not a whit pleasant to ye tast Vnlesse it be boyled in fish or flesh broth or else stewed.

Not in Yule. [De la Loubère in his Historical Relation of the Kingdom of Siam, ed. 1693, p. 23, has: — "Amongst the sweet Oranges the best have the Peel very green and rough; they [the Siamese] call them Soum-keou, or Crystal Oranges... They give of these Soum-keou to their sick." Compare also Sir John Bowring's Journal in his Kingdom and People of Siam, under date 30th March, 1855, Vol. II. p. 155: — "They gave us the Siamese names of the fruits on the table: — Som, orange; Som-kiou-wang, small orange..."

#### SANAS

Fol. 101. ffrom Hugly and Ballasore: Sanas.

See Yule, s. v. Piece Goods. He has no quotations. [A cotton cloth of the class now known as  $s \hat{a} l \hat{u}$ .]

#### SAR LASHKAR.

Fol. 56. [Chicacol] is ye residence of S. Larskare ye Kings deputy or Viceroy, Who bears as great Sway Over this Coast in Generall as ye Kinge his Master doth in Golcondah.

Not in Yule. [The General (Sar-i-Lashkar) or Viceroy of the "Golcondah Coast," constantly mentioned in the records of the period. N. and E., p. 20, for 25th May and 27th May 1680, has characteristic entries: — "One Sheake Ahmud came to Towne slyly with several peons dropping in after him, bringing letters from Futty Chaun at Chingulputt and Ruccas [notes] from the Ser Lascar Nabob Mahmud Ibrahim, and pretending that he had the king's Phyrmaund to warrant his beating his drum and carrying his flag as Avaldar of the Towne, and that he was ordered to take the government thereof on the plea that the Towne produced more than formerly and that Verona the Dubass was dead: whereupon he was ordered to remain outside the Towne until his business was known: In the evening three files of soldiers were sent to bring him into the Fort where he was examined and produced his letters." "The person that came to be Avaldar is sent away with a letter in answer to Futty Chaun."]

#### SASH.

Fol. 101, ffrom Cossumbazar . . . . fine Sashes.

Not in Yule. [Probably fine muslin made up into sizes for sashes round the waist.]

## SAUGOR ISLAND.

Fol. 91. The River of Ganges is of large and wonderful Extent: . . . and came into ye great River won rather deserves to be called the Sea of Ganges: ye breadth of it there I cannot certainely affirme, but judge it is not lesse then 10 English leags broad, won is about 40 miles within Ganga Sagar: or ye mouth of it.

See Yule, s. v. Saugor Island, at the mouth of the Hugli. [The quotation above is unique for accuracy of description and correctness of the form of the name.]

#### SCARLET.

- Fol. 43. With a Scarlet or broadcloth coveringe.
- Fol. 71. Where-Vpon he gave in his present of fine Scarlet.

- Fol. 102. The Staple Commodities brought into these 3 Kingdomes (namely Orixa: Bengala: & Pattana) are Scarlet.
  - Fol. 158. Some Commodities from England; viz! Scarlet.

See Yule, s. vv. Scarlet and Suclat. ["Scarlet" in old English was "broadcloth" of any colour.] N. and E. for 5th April 1680, p. 15: "It being necessary to appoint one as the Company's Chief merchant (Verona being deceased), resolved Bera Pedda Vincatadry do succeed and that Tasheriffs be given to him and the rest of the principal Merchants, viz., 3 yards scarlett to Pedda Vincatadry and 2½ yards each to four others, the ceremony being for the better grace performed before the rest of the merchants in the Council Chamber."]

#### SCREETORE

- - Fol. 158. ffrom Syam . . . . Screetores both plaine and lackared, &c:
  - Not in Yule. [A writing case: see ante, Vol. XXIX. pp. 116, 307; XXX. p. 163.]

#### SEEDY.

Fol. 171. he was by y: Siddy or Bishop of Achin freed from y: death his consorts [comrades] died.

See Yule, s. v. Seedy: a corruption of Saiyyid. [The quotation is valuable for the history of the Anglo-Indian term: now in common parlance an East African negro.]

#### SEER.

- Fol. 94. They weigh p! y! Maund, Seere,  $\frac{1}{2}$  Seere, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  Seere... The Maund bigg or little is equally divided into 40 Equall parts and are called Seers, we also are halfed and quartered.
- Fol. 99. Notwinstandinge Pattana be see fertile to afford graine to Such a plentifull countrey as Bengala: yett in ye yeare of our Lord 1670 they had as great a Scarcitie in see much ye one Pattana Seere weight of rice (ye plentifullest graine in ye countrey) was Sold for one rupee, ye Seere cont onely 27 Ounces [i. e., 6 oz. short weight].

See Yule, s. v. Seer, the well-known Indian weight, standardised nowadays at roughly 2 lbs. [In the text the big maund [Bengal] was 82 lbs. and the little maund [Madras] 25 lbs.: so the seer should have varied between 10 and 33 oz.]

#### SHABUNDER.

- Fol. 132. as Soone as wee come Vp wee are invited into a house where Speedily come to waite Vpon us ye Shabandar.
- Fol. 133. The Shabandars and what Others of y? Chiefe of y? King's Officers wee invite doe very Sociably sit downe and eat and drinke w! us.
- Fol. 134. Two of y. Grandees of his Councill must also be Piscashed w. 6 pieces of fine Callicoes or Chint each of them: and y. Shahbandar of Banquala w. 3 pieces Jdem.
- Fol. 140. Anno Dom: 1677: I Voyadged once more to Ianselone, and was kindly Entertained... Especially by Some of y? Old Shabandars and merchants.
- Fol. 139. All won Orders if not most Strictly and Speedily put in Execution you Radja and 2 of his chiefest councellours win you 3 Shabandars Shold loose their heads . . . . won Startled him and his Councell soe much that they immediately Sent you 3 Shabandars.
- Fol. 141. he immediately turned out of Office most of y. Syamers both Councellours Secretaries Shabandares.
  - Fol. 143. next to whom [the Sultan] are y Leximana: Orongkays: and Shabandars.

Fol. 144. Sold the goods to Sarajah Cawn: a Chulyar & chiefe Shabandar of Quedah: (and rogue Enough too).

Fol. 153. y. Kinge giueth positive Order to y. Shabandare.

Fol. 161. ye great Orongkay is Lord Chiefe Justice, there are other Orongkays & under this, as also Shabandars under them. . . . . . and acquainteth one of ye Shabandares.

Fol. 162. but in ye interim ye Shabandar & Dubashee and one or Other belongeinge to this great man the [Orongkay] doth accompanie him and discourse most friendly.

See Yule, s. v. Shabunder. [The above quotations show clearly that in the Malay States the Shahbandar was a high officer of State controlling the seaborne trade.]

## SHROFF.

Fol. 39. Shroffs vizt Changers of money.

See Yule, s. v. Shroff. [N. and E. p. 31, for 5th Aug. 1680, has: — "Report of the weight of 2 chests of gold and 2 Bags of Ryalls of 3 delivered to the Sharoffs for alloy."]

#### MATR

- Fol. 77. The Elephants of Ceylone are best Esteemed of here . . . and Endowed with more Sence and reason then those of Tanasaree Queda or Syam.
- Fol. 131. [Janselone] wholy belongeth to y. Kinge of Syam . . . . . . The Inhabitants Vp in y. Countrey are Naturall Syamers.
- Fol. 134. The English Nation in Generall is free from all Such duties in ye Kingdome of Svam.
- Fol. 140. A flew Months afterwards ye Kinge of Syam, tooke it into consideration, that an Austere man, one that had been bred a Warriour was a fitter person to Governe this Island (then the Syamer that now did).
- Fol. 148. y. Kinge of Syam... haveinge a warre of greater consequence in hand namely win y. Kinge of Pegu [1677].

See Yule, s. v. Siam.

## SOLLA.

- Fol. 143. but ye Old Kinge taketh vp his residence att Solla: a very large town in ye very middle of his Kingdome [of Queda].
- Fol. 145. Save a Very handsome and well favoured boy of about 11 years of age, whoe for his good countenance ve Kinge kept in his Pallace att Solla.
- Fol. 146. prepareth Some of y. King's boats, and goeth alonge with him in Person to Solla (y. place of y. Old Kings residence).
- Fol. 148. This good Old Kinge.... Anno Dom: 1677.... field up to y? Mountains and left Queda: Solla: and many Other places destitute of inhabitants, for Some time.

Not in Yule.

#### SOMBRERO.

Fol. 42. Sumbareros or Catysols.

See Yule, s. v. Sombrero. [An umbrella, not a hat.]

### STICKLACK.

Ful. 158. ffrom Bengala . . . . . Sticklack . . . . . . from Pegu . . very Excellent Sticklack.

Not in Yule. [But see Yule, s. v. Lac.]

## STRIPES.

Fol. 7. alsoe very ingenuous in workinge . . . . Striped Cloth of Gold and Silver. Fol. 101. ffrom Cossumbazar . . . . . Stripes interwoven we gold and Silver.

Fol. 158. are brought hither . . . . . Striped Stuffs of Golcondah & Pettipolee. Not in Yule. [Cotton cloth interwoven with gold and silver.]

#### SULTAN.

Fol. 143. y? King's Son (by y? Natives stiled Sultan) [at Queda] . . . . There are Severall men in Office y? doe governe here, and beare great Sway over ye people (Vnder y? Sultan or Younge Kinge).

See Yule, s. v. Sultan. [The above is a valuable quotation as showing that in the Malay States it sometimes meant the heir-apparent, "second king," Skr. yuva-rdya, Palı upa-rdya [corrupted by the way into Upper-Boger by old writers on Burma, a term which should be in Yule]: the Eng-shê-him of Burma, the Jub-râj of Manipur and so on.]

#### SUMATRA

Fol. 157. The Citty Achin is Vpon y? North End of y? great Island Sumatra, w? Extendeth from 05? 40" South Lattitude, to 05? 40" North Lattitude, soe y! the Equinoctiall Line divideth this Jsland into 2 Equall parts . . . . . [the Road of Achin] almost land locked w! y? head of Sumatra . . . . . with infinite Numbers of Prows from y? Malay Shore and West Coast of this Jsland Sumatra.

See Yule, s. v. Sumatra. [The above quotation is valuable for description.]

#### SUMBRA.

Fel. 165. he must receive them with great reverence Standinge Vp and makeinge a Sumbra to y. Queen's Windows.

Not in Yule. [Malay, a salutation.]

#### SURAT

- Fel. 142. and tell them in private what our goods cost upon ye Coast: or in Suratt: or Bengala: or elsewhere, wend doth many Christians a great Prejudice.
- Fel. 146. When ye Companie's Shipp arriveth from Suratt as generally there doth one every yeare (if not more).
- Fol. 153. There are not above 4 or 5 Ships and Vessels [to Queda] pr Annum from Suratt Choromandell and Bengala that Vse this Countrey.
- Fol. 157. Many Ships and Vessels doe att all Seasons of the yeare arrive in this Port [Achin] from Severall places, namely Suratt. . . . . . . . . . The Chiefe Commodities brought hither from Suratt.
- Fol. 166. When a Present is Sent to ye Queen [of Achin] from ye President of Suratt: or Agent and Governour of ffort S' Georg's.

See Yule, s. v. Surat. [The last quotation shows the accuracy of the writer's information. The "Presidency" was not transferred to Bombay till 1687.]

#### TAEL.

- Fol. 152. 16 mace is one Taile [in Queda].
- Fol. 162. And there wee pay for y. Chopp.... 4 tailes in moneys vizt four pounds Sterlinge..... Here y. Orongkay must be presented wth one piece of Baftos to y. Value of 2 tailes.... The Contract been [? between] us and the Court of Achin hath been of longe Standinge 50 tails p. Ship, if laden wth fine goods (admitt y. Ship be great or Small).... they are to make an abatement of 10: 15: or 20 tails, accordinge as y. quantitie is.
  - Fol. 173. gave ye fellow 5 tailes Vizt flue pounds Sterlinge.

See Yule, s. v. Tael: see ante, Vol. XXVII. p. 37 ff. The quotations are remarkable as to values. The tael was roughly an ounce and in silver was worth 5s. to 6s. 8d. sterling. The writer must mean a tael in gold, and if the gold tael was worth £1 sterling, as he more than once states, then gold valued in the Malay States at £1 the oz. and the ratio of silver to gold there varied between 4 and 3 to 1. A remarkable but by no means impossible occurrence, vide ante, Vol. XXVI. p. 309 and footnotes.

#### TAMARIND

- Fol. 17. One Old ffackeer I very well remember, that tooke up his habitation Vnder y. Shade of a great tamarin tree in Hugly (in Bengala).
  - Fol. 69. [Cattack] adorned with . . . delicate Groves of . . . tamarin.
  - Fol. 153. they carry hence [Queda] . . . . . Tamarin.

See Yule, s. v. Tamarind.

#### TANK.

- Fol. 4. the great Pond or tanke where they frequently wash themselves all over, before they assume to enter the Pagod.
  - Fol. 22. went win all Expedition into a great tanke of water win was very nigh.
  - Fol. 57. they have many delicate groves, tanks of water . . . . .

See Yule, s. v. Tank.

#### TARRA.

- Fol. 139. y. Kinge of Syam... Sent a Tarrah to y. Radja and all Officers what-soever upon y. Jsland of Ianselone: w. gaue a most Severe and Strict charge unto them never to come to any composition wth the Dutch... Hee likewise in y. generall letter to y. Radja &c. gaue positive Orders... I was discoursinge wth y. Radja when this Tarrah arrived.
- Fol. 148. untill a Tarra came from Syam wth letters and a Gold Cappe for a present to him [King of Queda], after a friendly but Monarchiall manner biddinge him line poore Slave and Enjoy his Countrey in peace.
- Not in Yule. [Frequently used in old books about Indo-China for letters-patent, the Indian firman, phyrmaund, &c.]

#### TARRA.

Fol. 152. Noe Other Coyned moneys in this Kingdome [Queda], Save Small Coppar moneys tinned over called Tarra: 96 of wen make one Copan.

Not in Yule. [The small tara, tare of Yule, is another coin altogether.]

#### TENASSERIM.

- Fol. 38. The Kinge of Golcondah hath Severall Ships yt trade yearely to . . . Tanassares.
- Fol. 77. that a stally trade to Sea, Some to Ceylone Some to Tanassaree, those fetch Elephants . . . . The Elephants of Ceylone are best Esteemed of here . . . . then those of Tanassaree.
- Fol. 131. [Janselone] Is an Island that lyeth to y. Southward of all the Jsles of Tanassaree: nearest middway btweene y. and Queda.

See Yule, s. v. Tenasserim.

#### TICAL.

Fol. 53. The Syam Ticuli Values one rupee \(\frac{1}{4}\) or 00lb 03s 07d.

See Yule, s. v. Tical. [See ante, Vol. XXVI. p. 253 ff. for an exhaustive treatment of this word, weight and coin.]

#### TODDY.

- Fol. 29. the Palmero tree affordeth that rare liquor formerly termed Palme-Wine, now vulgarly called Toddy, ye Palmito.... afford liquor alsoe... called date Toddy, not soe good as ye Other, more lucious but soon Eager.
- Fol. 40. another Sort there is [of arack] y! distilled from Neep toddy and yt is commonly called Nipa de Goa.

See Yule, s. v. Toddy. [The quotations are valuable for the different kinds.]

#### TOMBOLEE RIVER.

Fol. 76. beinge timerous of driveinge too farre down viz! upon the Shoals of y! Riuer Tombolee (where y! Riuer [Hugly] is most crooked).

Not in Yule. [But see Yule, s. v. Tumlook.] [Now the Rûpnarain running into the Hugli at the James and Mary Shoal.]

#### TOOTNAGUE.

Fol. 86. [The Orixas] withall soe ignorant that they know not Silver from Tootanagga. Fol. 158. from China.... Totanagga.

\* See Yule, s. v. tootnague: spelter. [The "white copper" of China is meant in the text. The same trick as that hinted at in the text is still played upon the Nicobarese, who cannot usually distinguish between silver and tootnague, i. e., German silver.] See also ante, Vol. XXVI. p. 222 f., for a similar trick on Java by the Chinese in the 17th Century.

#### TRANQUEBAR.

- Fol. 53. Porto Novo & Trincombar.
- Fol. 78. That very years ye Danes came from Trincombar: (a fine Garrison of ye Kinge of Denmarks) the onely place they have in Asia 40 English leage to the Southward of ffort S<sup>5</sup> George's . . . . The Danes findinge Small gaines to Jssue from this warre, did Anno Dom: 16 4: come downe from their Castle of Trincombar . . . All through ye Simplicitie of a Mechanick fellow ye the Danes Entitled theire Comadore, who rendred himselfe as he was really a most ridiculous man to ye mightie disgrace of there whole Nation & ffortification of Trincombarre.
  - Fol. 81. vntill they heard ffarther from the Castle of Trincombar.

See Yule, s. v. Tranquebar.

#### TRESSLETORE.

Fol. 4. Here followeth ye fig! of ye Pagod called **Tressletore**, 5 &  $\frac{1}{2}$  miles to ye Neward of ffort S'! Georg's.

Not in Yule. [An old pagoda, once famous, near Madras, known under various forms, of which **Trivitore** in Wheeler's Old Madras, p. 528, is as near as may be expected to the correct form.]

#### TURBAN.

Fol. 70. he had pulled off his gold Turbant.

Fol. 165. and from her is Sent to ye English Commander a Silke Suite of cloths we a Turbant after the Malay fashion.

Fol. 176. Each of them were his Turbat after the Arabian mode.

See Yule, s. v. Turban.

#### TUTICORIN.

Fol. 91. many of them have ye Shackles on their arms made of Chanke, a great Shell brought from Tutacree (a Dutch ffactorie neare ye Cape Comorin).

See Yule, s. v. Tuticorin.

#### VISS.

Fol. 53. The Vsuall Weights of this Coast [Choromandel] are . . . . y. Veece. . . . . A Maund Cont: 8 Veece 1/3: or 025 Idem [pounds] A Veece Cont: 003 Idem.

Fol. 132. [Janselone] when a Small parcell then for soe many Viece or soe many great or Small puttas: 4 great puttas make a Viece 10 Small ones is a Viece.

See Yule, s. v. Viss: ante, Vol. XXVI. p. 327, Vol. XXVII. p. 58 ff. [The well-known S. Indian Indo-Chinese weight, about 3½ lbs.]

#### VIZAGAPATAM.

Fol. 56. beinge a Very Secure Coast to harbour in namely in . . . . . Vizegapatam.

Not in Yule, but should be, as it turns up in all sorts of queer forms in the old books. [See ante, Vol. XXX. pp. 357, 400.]

#### WALTAIR.

#### YAM.

See Yule, s. v. yam.

#### YAVANASATAKAM:

A HUNDRED STANZAS TRANSLATED FROM GREEK POETS.

BY PROFESSOR C. CAPPELLER, PH.D., JENA.

#### HOMER.

1

न राज्यं बहुभिः कार्यमेकः शास्तु प्रजा विभुः। लोकत्राग्राय यो देवैः स्थापितः परमे चये।।

Cf. Panchat. III. 80.

в 204, 205.

यादृशानि हि पत्राणि तादृशाः सन्ति मानुषाः । यथा पत्नाणि वृत्तिभ्यो निपतन्ति महीतले ॥ रोहन्ति च पुनर्वातैः प्रेयमाणानिं माधवैः । एवं कुलानि जायन्ते विनद्यन्ति च देहिनाम् ॥

z 146—149.

न हि कश्चिज्जनो दैवमतिवर्तितुमहिति । क्षुद्रकः स्यादुदारो वा जन्म यो लब्धवान्भुवि ॥

z 488, 489.

अनिप्तमिनिकेतं च कुलन्नं विद्धि तं नरम् । यो वैरं रमते कुर्वनेकराष्ट्रनिवासिनाम् ॥

1 63, 64.

5

न हि प्राणिषु संवेषु महीतलविसर्पिषु । शोचनीयतरः कश्चिन्मनुष्यादिति मे मतिः॥

Cf. v. 38.

Cf. v. 96.

P 446, 447.

6

मूत्त्मा जिह्ना बहून्यस्यां विविधानि वचांसि च । यादृशं तु भवेदुक्तं प्रत्युक्तमपि तादृशम् ।।

Cf Subhashitarn. 192, 193.

Y 248-250.

7

एतद्भवति मर्त्यानां देवैः पूर्वविनिर्मितम् । दुःखादापतितुं दुःखं ते स्वयं सुखमासते ॥

Ω 525, 526.

8

तद्गीतं सर्वगीतानां प्रशंसन्ति हि मानुषाः । येनापूर्वेण कर्णानि हियन्ते हृदयानि च ॥

a 351, 352.

9

बहुमान्यमधीशत्वमित्राद्धि महाधेनैः। पूर्यते भवनं राज्ञो यशस्त्रीव विवर्धते॥

10

a 392, 393.

समाः कतिपये सन्ति पापीयांसी न दुर्नभाः । श्रेयांसस्तु पितुः पुत्रा विद्यन्ते यदि पञ्चषाः ॥

\$ 276, 277.

11

न प्रशस्यतरं किंचित्र तादृक्तृप्तिकारकम् । यथा भर्ता च भार्या च द्वावन्योऽन्यवद्यानुगौ । दुर्जनानां मनःशल्यं सुहृदां नयनोत्सवः । भूयिष्ठं तु महाप्रीत्या सुखयन्तौ परस्परम् ॥

Cf. Mark. Pur. XXI. 69.

ζ 182—185.

विधिना प्रेषितं विद्धि याचकं चातिथिं च ते । सत्कारेगा प्रयच्छास्मै दानं स्वल्पमिप प्रियम् ॥

12

\$ 207, 208.

13

न तथान्यद्यशो भाति यावज्जीवसि भूतले । यथा यञ्जभ्यते हस्तैः पाँदैश्वाजिषु जित्वरैः ॥

Cf. M. Bh. V. 1256.

\$ 147, 148.

14

न सर्वेषां मनुष्याणां सर्वान्देवा ददुर्गुणान् । स्वाकृतिं च विवेकं च दिव्यां चापि सरस्वतीम् ।। एकोऽङ्गदुर्बलत्वेन वैरूप्येण च योजितः । यस्य वाक्पदुता वक्ते शृग्वतां तृप्तिदायिनी ।। श्रन्यो रूपविशेषेण सर्वेभ्यो व्यतिरिच्यते । न यस्मै ददिरे देवा हद्गमां मधुजिब्हताम् ॥

Cf. Bahudarsana 36.

**≯** 168—175.

15

पितृपैतामहे स्थाने यत्सीख्यं हृदि जायते । न तंद्देशान्तरे लभ्यं विभवेषु महत्स्विप ॥

Cf. v. 93; Panchat. III. 92; V. 49.

4 34-36.

76

क्षेत्रं कर्तुं वरं मन्ये नरस्याधनिनो भुवि । न तु सर्वकुलं शास्तुं पेतानां यममन्दिरे ॥

λ 489-491.

17

तं हि प्रापुर्शिका नित्यं ध्यायन्ते मनसा नरम् । यो गृहे प्रतिजन्नाह पूजयामास चादरात् ॥

o 54, 55.

18

तुल्यदोषाववैम्येती तिष्ठन्तं योश्तिथिं गृहे । निष्कादायितुमिच्छेत यियासुं च निरोधयेत् ।।

o 72, 73.

19

भिक्षार्थेन मनुष्या यत्पर्ययन्ति वसुंधराम्। सहमाना महाक्रेशांस्तस्मिन्निन्द्यो हतीदरः॥

Cf. Panchat. I. 256.

o 344, 345.

20

न हि कश्चिदुपायोशस्त सुद्रोगं विनिगूहितुम् । यस्य हेतोस्तितिक्षन्ते श्रमान्बहुविधान्नराः ॥ नावो दीर्घेरित्रैश्च योजयन्ति बुभुत्तया । तितीर्षन्त उदन्वन्तं रखेषु च युयुत्सवः॥

c 286-289.

21

न शोच्यं मरणं पुंसः शेते यो निहतः शरैः । रत्त्रणे स्वकुदुम्बस्य गवाश्वस्य च पालने ॥

s 470-472.

## HESIOD.

(Opera et Dies.)

कुलालश्च कुलालाय विशाजे विशागीर्ध्यति । दिरद्वश्च दरिद्राय गायनाय च गायनः ॥

Cf. Mâlav. v. 19.

v. 25, 26,

93

भयानां पृथिवी पूर्णा पूर्णो व्हिधः प्रसरन्ति च । व्याधयः परितो जन्तुन्स्वयंजाताः परे पेरे ।।

Cf. v. 60.

v. 101-103.

:

नाद्य सूनुः पितुर्भक्तो न च सूनौ रतः पिता ।

मित्रं नाद्रियते मित्रं नातिथिश्व प्रतीच्छकम् ॥

न भ्रांतैव पियो भ्रातुः पूर्वकाले यथाभवत् ।

विजज्ञम्भे मनोमादः पूज्यते पापकर्मकृत् ॥

नष्टो भर्मो गता लज्जा विरलान्पद्य सज्जनान् ।

धूर्तो वञ्चयते गीर्भिः पद्बीभिः श्रपथैरुत ॥

ईद्यां निविविशे मर्त्यान्दुर्मुखी घोररूपिणी ।

परव्यसनसंहृष्टा धिगद्यत्वस्य दुष्टता ॥

Cf. Subhâshitâv. 3070.

v. 182-196.

25

मूढाशयो बलीयांसं निरोद्धं यो व्यवस्यति । स पराभवमाभोति दुःसहां च विमाननाम् ॥

Cf. Panchat. III. 126; I. 227; IV. 24.

v. 210, 211.

न सिंहो अप सदा मांसं भोक्तं विन्दति पश्यत । बलवन्तमपि क्रूरा पीडयेदनुपायता ।।

स्वैरिग्णीं योषितं द्वेष्मि नरं च रतिलम्पटम् । पत्युरन्यस्य यः चेत्रे कृषिं कर्तुं व्यवस्यति ॥

अमित्रं च गुणोपेतं न निन्देयं कदाचन । वयस्यं च न शंसेयमनई धर्मरोधिनम् ॥

ALCMAN.

निद्रावशं संप्रति पर्वतानां शिरांसि यातानि सकन्दरागि । इच्छन्ति शय्यां वनचारिगाश्च श्यामायते च स्तिमितेव पृथ्वी ॥ त्यजन्ति गुद्धं मधुलिद्वलानि कतं विहंगैर्विटपेषु मौनम्। शीतेषु पाथोनिधिगह्नरेषु तिमिंगिलाः स्वमसुखं भजन्ते ॥

Cr: Subhâshitam, 109.

(To be continued.)

# CORRESPONDENCE.

SOME NOTES ON DIGAMBARA JAINA ICONOGRAPHY.

SIR, - With reference to an article on Digambara Jaina Iconography by Dr J. Burgess, ante. Vol. XXXII. pp. 459 ff., I beg to point out the following few inaccuracies, which may lead your readers to misunderstand some customs of the Digambara Jainas:-

It is said that the Jaypur Khandarwâls are Viśpanthis or Thêrapanthis, and that the former worship standing and the latter sitting. First, this might lead one to think that the division into Vispanthîs and Thêrûpanthîs is confined to the Digambara Khandarwâl Jainas only. As a matter of fact, the Svêtâmbarîs and some of their sub-classes also may be Vispanthis. Also the Agarwals and other minor classes of the

Digambara Jainas may be Vispanthîs and Thêrâpanthîs. By the way, the term should be Têrâ (i e. 13) Panthis and not Têrapanthis. Secondly, the attitude of worship of the two classes is quite reversed. It is the Vispanthis who worship sitting; whereas the Têrâpanthîs worship standing, and sit only when they propose to meditate or repeat their mantras on the beads of a rosary in a very low, almost inaudible, tone of voice.

It must, however, be said here that a class of Jaina laymen, who profess to be much more learned and spiritual than their other Jaina Têrâpanthî brethren, and who are called Bhattarakas, worship in a sitting posture. But these Bhattarakas are a less than microscopic minority and their practice, therefore, is the exception to the rule, which is recognized by the majority of the orthodox Digambara Jainas.

2.

Again, it is said that "they (the Terananthis) object to bathing themselves or the images, and worship with water, cocoanut-water or nanchamrita." In this connection it is enough to say that it is one of the most important factors of the ritual connected with every Digambara Jaina temple. that some one - a male - should get up early in the morning, should bathe, and at sunrise, or only a little, not much, before it, should go to the temple and bathe the images of the Tîrthankaras that are placed there. Also it must be noted that the bathing is generally - almost exclusively done on the premises of the temple, to guard against the risk of the worshipper's body being again contaminated after bathing, if he bathes at his house and then goes to the temple.

Q

As to the "eleven grades of Jainas" enumerated by Dr. Burgess, I think these are the eleven stages in the life of a householder, which lead up from a simple belief in Jainism to an almost complete renunciation of the world, in perfect agreement with the essential teachings of the Jaina religion. These stages are called pratimas, and in Digambara books are enumerated as below:—

- 1. Darsana, or Faith in the true God, true teacher, and true religion.
  - 2. Vrata, various kinds of abstinence and vows.
- 3. Samdyak, saying prayers three times a day for fixed periods.
- 4. Proshdhôpvâs, keeping fast for sixteen pahars on the eighth and the fourteenth days of each half of the month as reckoned in India.
- 5. Sachita-tydga, abstaining from eating green vegetables.
- 6. Nisbhôjún-tydga, abstaining from four kinds of food at night, and from providing others with the same.
- 7. Brahmacharyya, keeping aloof from sexual intercourse altogether.
- 8. Arambha-tydga, abandonment of all engagements and occupations.
- 9. Parigraha-tydga, renunciation of the two sorts of Parigrahas, external and internal.
- 10. Anumódana-Vrata, vowing not to take part in any worldly or household concern. Also vowing not to take food uninvited.

11 Uddhisht-Vrata, becoming unclothed and living in a jungle with a langoti and kamandalv (alms-bowl); or retaining a dhoti (a waist-cloth), a piece of cloth to cover the body and an alms-bowl, and living in a temple or a mandapa, or in some lonely and unfrequented place, other than a mandir or temple.

Obviously the eleven grades of Jainas, as Dr. Burgess is informed, are inaccurate. Either he has been given wrong information, or he has misunderstood the explanations of his informant. The statement that the fourth-grade Jainas "observe all the Jaina precepts but are guilty of adultery" is altogether misleading. Perhaps in the above enumeration it corresponds to the sixth pratimá, the Nisbhôján-tyága. For sometimes a part of its observance is said to be abstinence from sexual enjoyment in the day-time, which, of course, implies freedom of the enjoyment at other times. Now this implied permission to enjoy one's wedded spouse at night is misconstrued as adultery, and the inaccuracy of the statement in the article is obvious.

The fifth-grade Jainas are said to be 'dishonest.' But this is misleading, for dishonesty is neither enjoined nor permitted to the Jainas. Only they do not have to take a religious vow expressly to abstain from it at a certain stage of their life as a householder. Otherwise it is a part of the details of the second pratima Vrata, even of the details of the first pratima Darsana, that the Jaina householder shall not commit theft, and theft surely includes many kinds of dishonesty.

The misleading nature of the sixth statement that the Jainas "abet crimes, but do not commit them personally," is quite akin to the fifth. It is well known that the Jainas view their morality, and their asceticism also at times, from three points of view, i.e., as they relate to the body, mind or tongue, i.e., to act, thought or words.\text{!} Now it is not abetting of crimes that is enjoined upon or allowed to a householder of the sixth grade; it is the absence of express prohibition of committing deeds by words or by the instrumentality of others that is mistaken for permission to abet crimes.

4.

As to the distinctions that the article draws between the Digambara and the Svêtâmbara Jainas, the fifth distinction, on p. 461, is inaccurate. The Svêtâmbaras light lamps in their

<sup>[1</sup> Compare H. Jacobi's Introduction to Jaina Sutras, Part II, Vol. XLV., S. B E. p. xvii, where he institutes a comparison between some Jaina doctrines as referred to in the Majhtma Nikhya, with certain corresponding statements in the Satrakritanga and Sthandaga Satras.]

temples and worship their images at night. The Digambaras, particularly the Têrâpanthîs, do not worship at night, although they light lamps in their temples for the purpose of reading their scriptures there.

As to the sixth distinction, it is not the Digambaras, especially Têrâpanthîs, who bathe their images with panchāmrita It is the Svêtâmbaras who do so, or else the Bhattârakas, reference to whom has already been made above.

5.

As to the Yakshas and Yakshinis, general references to them in the body of the article, p 463, ll 29—32, are not in keeping with the plates given at the end of the article. Both Yakshas and Yakshinis do not, in all cases, hold their right hand up with palm foremost in front of the chest, and the left hand closed As a matter of fact, (i) Trimukha Yaksha (3)² has his left hand closed but with a tendency to show the palm outwards; (ii) Iśvara and Gauri (11) both hold up the left hand with their open palm outwards and the fingers hanging down; (iii) Kumāra (12) Yaksha holds the left hand as above — his Yakshini has it closed; (iv) Yakshini Kushmanpini (22) has two children in her two arms and

places both her hands before her near her thighs and with the palm inwards; (v) Yaksha and Yakshinî (24) both hold up their left hand open, with its fingers hanging down and the palm inwards.

6.

Similarly, with regard to the feet of the Yakshas and Yakshinis, the general remark in the article is at variance with the figures on the plates. A complete classification would be as follows: —(i) Yaksha and Yakshini (1) have their left foot down and right tucked up in front: (ii) Yaksha (2) has his left foot down and right tucked up in front, and Yaksinî (2) has her right foot down and left in front; (iii) Yakshas and Yakshinîs (from Nos 3 to 12) all have their left foot down and right tucked up in front; (iv) Both Yakshas and Yakshinîs (Nos. 13 to 22) hold their right foot down and the left tucked up in front; (v) Yaksha (23) has his right foot down and left in front; Yakshinî (23) has her left foot down, and right in front; (vi) Yaksha and Yakshini (24) both sit as above.

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April, 1904.

## MISCELLANEA.

FURTHER NOTES ON SOME DOUBTFUL COPPER COINS OF SOUTHERN INDIA.

SINCE the publication of my paper on Doubtful Copper Coins in Southern India in ante, Vol. XXXII. p. 313 ff., I have been able to identify a few of the coins there figured, and I now submit the following notes.

No. 17 E. — I am inclined to think that this is a Pandyan coin, and that the symbol at the top of the rev. is not a lingam and altar as I supposed. Above the back of the Nandi is a battle-axe.

The symbol above the axe seems to be separated by dotted lines from the axe and the bull. It may represent a mountain. One of my "Koneri Râyan" series, which seems to be certainly Pândyan, has a figure of a standing bull with a battle-axe above.

Nos. 43, A to D, are coins of the Dutch, and the legend on the reverse is Puduchcheri (Pondicherry). Count Maurin Nahuys has described them (pp. 13, 14) and figured them (Plates 6, 7, 8) in his paper on the "Numismatique des Indes Néerlandaises," published in the "Revue Belge de Numismatique," 1887.

No. 55 belongs to a South-Indian Bull-andtrisula series of which I have several. Sir Walter Elliot has figured one (Plate IV., 174) and described it (p. 134) in his "Coins of Southern India," but he was unable to place it with any accuracy. I overlooked this point when preparing my List.

I take this opportunity of submitting for identification by experts, another coin from South India that has long been a puzzle to me.





It was omitted from my List accidentally, being, at the time my paper was prepared, in custody of Mr. Rapson of the British Museum, who, however, was unable to class it. The horse is somewhat similar to that on No. 56 of my "Doubtful" List, which may be a coin of Maistr. But the Tamil letter na on the reverse seems to shew that the present coin has no connection with that principality.

R. SEWELL.

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## INDIAN PALEOGRAPHY

FROM ABOUT B. C. 350 TO ABOUT A. D. 1300

BY

## G. BÜHLER.

## I. THE ANTIQUITY OF WRITING IN INDIA AND THE ORIGIN OF THE OLDEST INDIAN ALPHABET.

## § 1. — The Indian tradition.1

The tradition of both the orthodox and the heterodox sects of India ascribes the invention of writing, or at least of the chief script, to the creator Brahmā, and thereby claims it as a national invention of the remotest antiquity. The former view is found in the Nārada-Smṛti,² a redaction of the Manusamhitā (mentioned by Bāṇa about A. D. 620), and in Bṛhaspati's Vārttika on Manu,³ as well as in Hiuen Tsiang⁴ and in the Jaina Samavāyānga-Sūtra (traditional date about B. C. 300), the account of which latter work is repeated in the Paṇṇāvaṇā-Sūtra (traditional date B. C. 168).⁵ The story is also indicated in the representations of Brahmā at Bādāmi of about A. D. 580, where the deity holds in one of his hands a bundle of palm-leaves,⁶ for which in later representations an inscribed sheet of paper is substituted.⁵

The story, according to which in particular the Indian script running from the left to the right is an invention of Brahmā (Fan), is told in full in the Chinese Buddhistic Fawanshulin.<sup>8</sup> The two Jaina works mentioned above, and the Lalitavistara,<sup>9</sup> indicate its existence by naming the most important script  $bambh\bar{\imath}$  or  $br\bar{\imath}hm\bar{\imath}$ . These traditional statements make it advisable to adopt the designation  $Br\bar{\imath}hm\bar{\imath}$  for the characters in which the majority of the Aśoka edicts are written, and for their later developments.

Berüni<sup>10</sup> mentions a slightly different story. He says that the Hindus once had forgotten the art of writing, and that through a divine inspiration it was rediscovered by Vyāsa, the son of Parāšara. Accordingly, the history of the Indian alphabets would begin with the Kaliyuga, in B. C. 3101.

While these myths tend to show that the Hindus had forgotten the origin of their alphabet in early times, — perhaps already about B. C. 300, but certainly before the beginning of our era, — there are some other portions of their traditions which possess a greater and a positive value. The two Jaina Sūtras referred to above, contain a list of 18 separate alphabets; and the Lalitavistara<sup>11</sup> enumerates 64 scripts which are said to have existed in the time of Buddha. Several among the names of the two lists agree, and there are in particular four which, as may have been already recognised, have a claim to be considered authentic and historical.

<sup>1</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 23-35; comp. Anecdota Oxon., Aryan Series, I, 3, 67; B.ESIP. 6; A. Ludwig, Yavanānī, Şitz. Ber. Bohm. Ges. d. Wiss. 1893, IX., and the works quoted by Dr. Burnell.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SBE. 23, 58 f.

<sup>3</sup> SBE. 23, 304.

<sup>4</sup> Siyuki 1, 77 (BEAL).

<sup>6</sup> W.IS. 16, 280, 399.

<sup>7</sup> Moor. Hindu Pantheon. Pl. 3, 4; AR. 1, 243.

<sup>8</sup> BOR. 1, 59.

<sup>11</sup> loc. cit.; a third list, with about 30 mostly very corrupt names, in the Mahavastu 1, 135 (SENART).

Besides the brahmi or bambhi, which is the parent of all the still existing alphabets of India. two more can be identified with known scripts. The kharosthi or kharotthi is, as the Fawanshulin states,1 the writing running from the right to the left, invented by one Kharostha. "Ass-lin." and is the same character which European scholars formerly used to call Bactrian. Indo-Bactrian. Bactro-Pali, Ariano-Pali, &c. The dravidi or damili of the lists is very [2] probably the partly independent variety of the Brāhmī, which recently has become known through the relic vessels from the Stupa of Bhattiprolu in the Kistna district.3 Besides, the name puskarasārī or pukkharasāriyā is certainly historical, as it is evidently connected with the nomen gentile Puskarasādi or Pauskarasādi (with the Northern Buddhists Puskarasāri) by which one or several ancient teachers of law and grammar are mentioned in Pānini's grammar. Apastamba's Dharmasutra, and other works. It appears not incredible that a member of the family of Pusharasad may have invented a new alphabet or modified an existing one. The list of the Jainas includes also the name yavanāliyā or yavanāniyā, which is identical with yavanāni. "the writing of the Yavanas or Greeks," of Pāṇini (traditional date about B. C. 350).4 An early acquaintance of the Hindus with the Greek alphabet may have been brought about by the expedition of Skylax to North-Western India in B. C. 509, or by the fact that Indian and Gandharian troops took part in Xerxes' war against Greece,5 and even by an ancient commercial intercourse. At all events, finds of Indian imitations of Attic drachmes with Greek inscriptions tend to prove the use of the Greek alphabet in North-Western India before the time of Alexander.6

As some names of the Jaina list are thus shown to be ancient by the results of epigraphic researches and by Pāṇini, as well as by the agreement of the independent tradition of the Northern Buddhists, the list is not without historical value. And it may be considered at least highly probable that a fairly large number of alphabets was known or used in India about B. C. 300. The exact number, 18, which the Jainas mention, must however be taken merely as conventional, as it frequently occurs in traditional statements.

An extract from the lost Drstivada of the Jainas also gives some further account of the ancient Brahmi.7 It states that this alphabet contained only 46 radical signs, instead of the usual number of 50 or 51. The letters intended are without a doubt:  $A, \overline{A}, \overline{I}, \overline{I}, \overline{U}, \overline{U}, E, AI$ O. AU (10), Am, Ah; ka, kha, ga, gha, na, ca, cha, ja (20), jha, ña, ta, tha, da, dha, na, ta, tha, da (30), dha, na, pa, pha, ba, bha, ma, ya, ra, la (40), va, śa, ṣa, ha, la; while the mātrkās R,  $\overline{R}$ , L,  $\overline{L}$ , and the ligature kea, which in later times was often erroneously considered a mātrkā, were excluded. The four liquid vowels are wanting also in the alphabet of the Lalitavistara,8 and in that of the modern elementary schools. In the latter the instruction is based on the so-called Bārākhadī (Skt. dvādaśāksarī), a table of the combinations of the consonants with the twelve vowels mentioned above, e. g., ka, ka, to kam, kah. The antiquity of the Barakhadi, which from its Mangala Om namah siddham is at present sometimes called Siddhaksarasamamnaya or Siddhamātrkā, is attested by Hui-lin (A. D. 788—810), who mentions it as the first of the twelve fan or 'cycles' (evidently Hinen Tsiang's twelve chang) with which the Hindu boys began their studies. Further evidence for the omission of the vowels R,  $\overline{R}$ , L,  $\overline{L}$  is furnished by Hiuen Tsiang's remark<sup>11</sup> that the Indian alphabet of his time contained 47 letters (the last one being probably the ligature kea), and by the fragments of the incomplete alphabet of Asoka's stone-masons at Gaya, 12 which may be restored as follows: A,  $*\overline{A}$ ,  $*\overline{I}$ ,  $*\overline{I}$ ,  $*\overline{U}$ , \*'\*AI, \*O, \*AU (10), \*Am or \*Ah, ka, \*kha, \*ga, \*gha, na, \*ca, cha, \*ja, \*jha (20), \*ña, \*ṭa.

\* EI. 2, 323 ff.

7 W.IS. 16, 281.

9 B.IS. III 2, 80.

<sup>5</sup> Herodotus, VII, 65, 66.

<sup>1</sup> BOR. 1, 59. 2 Comp. WZKM. 9, 66, and B.IS. III2, 113 f.

Mahābhāsya 2, 220 (Kielhoen).

B. V. HEAD, Cat. of Greek Coins: Attica, p. XXXI. f., pp. 25-27.

Sansk. text, Bibl. Ind. 145; LEFMANN, 127.

<sup>10</sup> Siyuki 1, 78 (BEAL); St. Julien, Mémoires des pèlérius Bouddhiques 1, 72, and note.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Siyuki 1, 77.

All these various points tend to show that the popular Brāhmī contained, as the Jaina tradition asserts, since the third century B. C. only 46 letters, and that, as the occurrence of the vowels AI, AU, Am, Ah and the consonant na proves, it was adapted to the wants of the Sanskrit language. But it is not [3] improbable that the Brahmans already then used particular signs for the liquid vowels in their works on grammar and phonetics. The method, however, according to which the actually known signs for these sounds have been formed, differs from that adopted for the other vowel-signs. The medial r,  $\bar{r}$ , and l were developed first, and the initials later; while in the case of a,  $\bar{a}$ , &c., the process was the contrary one (see below,  $\S$  4, and  $\S$  24, A, 6, 7). The Chinese have also preserved an Indian tradition asserting that r,  $\bar{r}$ , and l are later additions to the original alphabet.

# § 2. — Literary evidence for the use of writing.

# A. — Brahmanical literature.2

Among Vedic works, the Vasistha Dharmasutra, which according to Kumarila (about A. D. 750) originally belonged to a school of the Rgveda, and which is younger than the lost Mānava Dharmasūtra but older than the existing Manusamhitā,3 offers clear evidence for the widely spread use of writing during the "Vedic" period. Vasistha in XVI, 10, 14-15, mentions written documents as legal evidence, and the first of these sutras is a quotation from an older work or from the traditional lore. Further, Pāṇini's grammar, which belongs to the Vedāngas, contains, besides the term yavanānī mentioned above, the compounds lipikara and libikara, "writer" (III, 2, 21), which sometimes have been rendered erroneously, against the authority of the Kosas, by "maker of inscriptions." In addition to these few certain passages, the later Vedic works contain some technical terms, such as aksara, kanda, patala, grantha, &c., which some scholars have quoted as evidence for writing. But others have explained them differently, and it is indeed not necessary to consider them as referring to written letters and MSS.5 Similarly, opinions are much divided with respect to the force of some other general arguments for the early use of written documents and MSS., drawn from the advanced state of Vedic civilisation, especially from the high development of trade and the complicated monetary transactions mentioned in Vedic works, from the use of prose in the Brahmanas from the collection, the methodical arrangement, the numeration, and the analysis of the Vedic texts, and from the grammatical, phonetic, and lexicographic researches in the Vedāngas.6 Though some of these points, especially the first and the last, undeniably possess considerable weight, they have yet not gained general recognition, as will always happen if an argumentum ex impossibili is used, even if it should be supported by fuller special enquiries than Sanskrit scholars have hitherto devoted to these subjects.

While this kind of evidence will probably not be generally accepted very soon, it is to be hoped that the argumentum ex silentio, — the inference that a Vedic work which does not mention writing must have been composed when writing was unknown in India, — will be dropped. The argumentum ex silentio is certainly not conclusive, because the Hindus even at present, in spite of a long continued use of writing, esteem the written word less than the spoken one, because they base their whole literary and scientific intercourse on oral communications, and because, especially in scientific [4] works, writing and MSS, are mentioned very rarely. Though MSS, being Sarasvatīmukha, "the face of the goddess of speech," are

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 33.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 5 f.; M.M.HASL. 497 ff.; L.IA.<sup>2</sup>, 1, 1008 ff.; B.ESIP. 1 ff.; WEBEE, Ind. Streifen 3, 348 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SBE. 14, XVII ff. 4 M.M.RV.<sup>2</sup>, 4, LXXII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> M.M.HASL. 521 ff.; GOLDSTÜCKER, Manava Kalpasütra, Intr. 14 ff.; W.IS. 5, 16 ff.; M.M.RV.<sup>2</sup>, 4, LXXII ff.

<sup>6</sup> WHITNEY, Or. and Ling. St. 82; J.AOS. 6, 563; BENERY, ZDMG. 11, 347; BÖHTLINGK, Bull. Pet. Akad. 1859, 847; PISCHEL and GELDNEE, Vedische Studien, 1, XXIII, XXVI; J. DAHLMANN, Das Mabābh. 185; against these views, M.M.RV.2, 4, loc. cit.; Letter in Takakusu's transl. of Itsing, X ff.; W.IS. 5, loc. cit.

held sacred and are worshipped, the Veda and the Sastras exist, even for the modern Hindu. only in the mouth of the teacher, whose word has more weight than a written text, and they can only be learned properly from a teacher, not from MSS. Even in our days, the Hindus esteem only the mukhasthā vidyā, the learning which the Pandit has imprinted on his memory Even in our days, learned discussions are carried on with reference to living speech, and even the modern poets do not wish to be read, but hope that their verses will become "ornaments for the throats of the learned" (satām kanthabhūsana). As far as our observation reaches. this state of things has been always the same since the earliest times. Its ultimate cause probably is that the beginning of the Hindu Sastras and poetry goes back to a time when writing was unknown, and that a system of oral teaching, already traceable in the Royeda. was fully developed before the introduction of written characters. The reasons just stated do not permit us to expect many traces of the use of writing in the works of the schools of priests or Pandits, or to look in them for frequent references to letters and written documents, But, on the other hand, there is nothing to bar the conjecture, repeatedly put forward, that, even during the Vedic period, MSS. were used as auxiliaries both in oral instruction and on other occasions. And, as an argument in favour of this conjecture, it is now possible to adduce the indisputable fact that the Brāhmī alphabet has been formed by phonologists or by grammarians and for scientific use.1

But such Brahmanical works as the Epics, Purānas, Kāvvas, dramas, &c., which describe actual life, or the metrical law-books which fully teach not only the sacred but also the civil and criminal law, as well as compositions such as the Nīti-, Nātva-, and Kāma-śāstras which exclusively refer to worldly matters, contain numerous references to writing and to written documents of various kinds, and likewise evidence for the occurrence of MSS. of literary works. Unfortunately, however, it is not possible to assert of any of the existing books of these classes, - excepting the two Epics, - that they are older than the period to which the oldest inscriptions belong. And even the evidence of the Epics may be impugned, since we cannot prove that every word of their texts goes back to a high antiquity. Professor Jacobi's examination of the several recensions of the Rāmāyaṇa has shown that the greater part of the verses, now read, did not belong to the original poem.2 As far as is known at present, the MSS. of the Mahābhārata do not show equally great variations. But the existence of the majority of its chapters can be proved only for the eleventh century A. D.3 Though the testimony of the Epics can, therefore, only be used with due reserve, yet it is undeniable that their terms regarding writing and writers are archaic. Like the canonical works of the Southern Buddhists,4 they use the ancient expressions likh, lekha, lekhaka, and lekhana, not the probably foreign word lipi.

The most important passages of the Epics, concerning writing, have been collected in the St. Petersburg Dictionary under the words mentioned, and by J. Dahlmann, Das Mahābhārata, 185 ff. Regarding the passages on writing in Manu, see the Index in Sacred Books of the East, Vol. XXV, under "Documents," and for the legal documents, described in the later Smṛtis, see Vol. II. of this Encyclopedia, Part 8, Recht und Sitte, § 35. An interesting collection of statements regarding MSS. in the Purāṇas is found in Hemādri's Dānakhaṇḍa, Adhy. 7, p. 544 ff. (Bibl. Ind.). The Kâmasūtra I, 3 (p. 33, Durgāprasād) enumerates pustakavācana, "the reading of MSS.," among the 64 kalās.

# B. - Buddhistic literature.5

[5] More important than the testimony of the Brahmans is that of the Ceylonese Tripitaka, where numerous passages bear witness not only to an acquaintance with writing, but also to its extensive use at the time when the Buddhist canon was composed. Lekhā, "writing,"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See below, page 17. <sup>2</sup> Jacobi, Das Rām. 3 ff. <sup>3</sup> Kirstf in B IS. II, 27 ff. <sup>4</sup> See below, under B. B.IS. III.<sup>2</sup>, 7—16; Oldenberg, SBE. 18, XXXII ff.; D'Alwis, Introd. to Kaccāyana's Gram. XXVI f., CXV f., 72—103; Weeer, Ind. Streifen 2, 337 ff.

and lekhaka, "a writer," are mentioned in the Bhikkhu-Pācittya 2, 2, and in the Bhikkhunī-Pācittiya 49, 2; and the former work praises writing as a branch of knowledge that is honoured in all countries. The Jatakas repeatedly speak of privatel and official2 letters. They also know of royal proclamations,3 of which Mahāvagga 1, 43 likewise mentions an instance; and they narrate that important family affairs or moral and political maxims were engraved on gold plates.4 Twice we hear of debtor's bonds (inapanna),5 and twice even of MSS. (potthaka).5 A game called akkharikā is mentioned repeatedly in the Vinayapiţaka and the Nikāyas, according to Buddhaghosa, its main feature was that letters were read in the sky. The Pārāņka section of the Vinavapitaka (3, 4, 4) declares that Buddhist monks shall not "incise" (chind) the rules which show how men may gain heaven, or riches and fame in the next life, through particular modes of suicide. From this passage it follows (1) that the ascetics of pre-Buddhistic times used to give their lay-disciples rules, incised on bamboo or wooden tablets, concerning religious suicide, which the ancient Brahmans and the Jainas strongly recommended, and (2) that the knowledge of the alphabet was widely spread among the people.

Finally, Jātaka No. 125, and Mahāvagga 1, 49,8 bear witness to the existence of elementary schools, in which the method of teaching and the matter taught were about the same as in the indigenous schools of modern India. The Jātaka mentions the wooden writing-board (phalaka), known (as well as the varnaka or wooden pen) also to the Lalitavistara9 and to Berūnī,10 and still used in Indian elementary schools. The passage of the Mahāvagga gives the curriculum of the schools, lekhā, gaṇanā and rūpa, which three subjects, according to the Hāthigumphā inscription of the year 165 of the Maurya era,11 king Khâravela of Kalinga learnt in his childhood. Lekhā, of course, means "writing," and gaṇanā, "arithmetic," i.e., addition, substraction and the multiplication-table formerly called anka and now ank, while rapa, literally "forms," corresponds to applied arithmetic, the calculations with coins, of interest and wages, and to elementary mensuration. These three subjects are still "the three R's" taught in the indigenous schools called gāmṭī nīśāļ, pāṭhśālā, lehśaḍ or toll.

These very plain statements of the Ceylonese canon refer certainly to the actualities of the period between B. C. 500-400, possibly even of the sixth century.12 Their antiquity is proved also by the fact that all the terms for writing, letters, writers, - chindati, likhati, lekha, lekhaka, akkhara, — as well as nearly all the writing materials, wood or bamboo, panna or leaves, and suvannapatta or gold plates, point to the oldest method of writing, the incision of the signs in hard materials. All traces of the use of ink are wanting, though the statements of Nearchos and Q. Curtius regarding the writing materials used at the time of Alexander's invasion (see below under C) make it very probable that ink was known in the fourth century B.C., and though an ink-inscription of the third or second century B. C. is found on the inner side of the lid of the relic vessel from Stūpa No. III. at Andher. 13 Moreover, the Ceylonese books are not acquainted with the words lipi, libi, dipi, dipati, dipapati, lipikara and libikara for "writing," "to write," and "writer," of which the first six are found in the [6] Aśoka edicts and the last two, as stated above, in Pāṇini's grammar. Dipi and lipi are probably derived from the Old Persian dipi, which cannot have reached India before the conquest of the Panjab by Darius about B. C. 500, and which later became lipi.14

<sup>1</sup> B.IS. III2, 7 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 8 f., 120. <sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 10, 120.

<sup>3</sup> B.IS. III2, 10, 18.

<sup>4</sup> B.IS. III2, 10 f. 7 B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 16.

<sup>8</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 13 ff.

<sup>6</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 120. 9 Sansk. text, 143; comp. BOR. 1, 59.

<sup>10</sup> India 1, 182 (SACHAU).

<sup>11</sup> Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 154.

<sup>12</sup> B.IS. III2, 16 ff., OLDENBERG, Vinayapitaka I, XXXIV ff.; M. MULLER, SBE. 10, XXIX ff.

<sup>13</sup> CUNNINGHAM, Bhilsa Topes, p. 349, pl. 30, 6.

<sup>14</sup> B.IS. III, 21 f., WESTERGAARD, Zwei Abhandl. 33.

# C. — Foreign Works.

To the last quarter of the fourth century B. C. refer the statement of Nearchos, according to which the Hindus wrote letters on well beaten cotton cloth, and the note of Q. Curtius, which mentions the tender inner bark of trees as serving the same purpose, and clearly points to the early utilisation of the well known birch bark. The fact that, according to these two writers, two different indigenous Indian materials were used in B. C. 327—325, shows that the art of writing was then generally known and was nothing new. To a slightly later time belongs the fragment No. 36 a of Megasthenes, which speaks of mile-stones indicating the distances and the halting places on the high roads. In another often discussed passage, Megasthenes says that the Indians decided judicial cases according to unwritten laws, and adds in explanation that they knew no  $\gamma \rho \dot{\alpha} \mu \mu a \tau a$  and settled everything  $\dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{\alpha} \mu \gamma \dot{\eta} \mu \eta s$ . According to the now usual interpetation, this statement has been caused by a misunderstanding. Megasthenes took the term smrti, used by his informants, in the sense of  $\mu r \dot{\eta} \mu \eta s$ , "memory," while they meant it in the sense of "the sacred tradition concerning law," or "the lawbooks," which, according to Indian principles, can only be explained orally by one who knows the Dharma.

# § 3. — Paleographic evidence.<sup>5</sup>

The results of a paleographic examination of the most ancient Indian inscriptions fully agree with the literary evidence, which bears witness to the widely spread use of writing during the fifth century B. C. and perhaps even during the sixth. The characters of the Aśoka edicts, which have to be considered first, prove very clearly that writing was no recent invention in the third century B. C. The alphabet of the edicts is not homogeneous. All the letters, with the exception of U, jha, na, n

# HKBKKXKK

The first sign has hardly any resemblance to the last. But the sequence in the row shows their connection and their development. The first seven owe their existence to a predilection partly [7] for angles and partly for curves, - two mutually contradictory tendencies, which find their expression also in the forms of other letters of pl. II, such as gha, da, da, da, da, &c. The signs Nos. 1, 2, 3 of the series given above, are due to the first tendency, and Nos. 6, 7 to the second. Nos. 4, 5 show the transition from the angle to the curve, and No. 8 is a cursive simplification of No. 6. These eight signs are not found in all the versions of the Aśoka edicts, but are divided locally as follows. The angular forms Nos. 1, 2, 3 appear only in the south, in Girnar, Siddapura, Dhauli, and Jaugada, side by side with Nos. 4 to 7. And it must be noted that the latter are rare in Girnar and Siddapura, but in the majority in Dhauli and Jaugada. In the versions discovered north of the Narmadā or the Vindhya, we find mostly only Nos. 4 to 7, but in Kālsī No. 8 also is common, and it occurs a few times in Rāmpūrva. Hence the angular forms of A, A, appear to be specially southern ones, and they are no doubt also the most ancient. The first inference is confirmed by a comparison of the most nearly allied inscriptions. The relic vessels from Kolhāpur6 and Bhattiprolu (pl. II, cols. XIII—XV), and the oldest Andhra inscription from the Nānāghāṭ (pl. II, cols. XXIII, XXIV) again show the angular A, A, either exclusively or

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Strabo, XV, 717.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Hist, Alex. VIII, 9; comp. C. MÜLLER, Fragm. Hist, Graec. 2, 421.

C. MÜLLER, op. cit. 430.

<sup>\*</sup> Frag. 27; C. MÜLLEB, op. cit. 421; SCHWANBECK, Magasthenes, p. 50, n. 48; M.M.HASL. 515; B.ESIP. 1; L.IA. II<sup>2</sup>, 724; Webeb, Ind. Skizzen 131 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 35-53.

<sup>6</sup> B.ASRWI. No. 10, 39, plate.

together with the mixed forms Nos. 4, 5, while the numerous inscriptions found further north on the Stūpas of Sāñci and Bharahut, in Pabhosa and Mathurā (pl. II, cols. XVIII—XX) on the coins of Agathocles, and in the Nāgārjunī cave (pl. II, col. XVIII), offer either pure curved letters or mixed ones. An exception in Mahābodhi-Gayā¹ is probably explained by the fact that pilgrims from the south incised records of their donations at the famous sanctuary. Similar differences between northern and southern forms may be observed in the case of kha, ja, ma. ra and sa,² and they are all the more important as the circumstances under which the Aśoka edicts were incised did not favour the free use of local forms.³ But the existence of local forms always points to a long continued use of the alphabet in which it is observable.

Equally important is the occurrence of apparently or really advanced and cursive types which for the greater part reappear or become constant in the later inscriptions. The subjoined table shows in line A the most important modern looking signs from the Asoka edicts, and in line B the corresponding ones from later inscriptions.

	a	ka		kha		ga	gha	cha	jā	da	Ü
$\boldsymbol{A}$	Н	+	З	?	2	Λ	سا	ð	٤	L,	ለ
В	H	†	3	?	Z	Λ	سا	<b>င</b> ် 8	E	₹	X
	I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1 [
	ďa	pa	pha	bha	1.	a	va	27	sa	h	a
A	\$	L	b	d	ป	لہ	Ь	ර	b	b	L
В	>	L	L	4	J	ر		2		L	ما
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

Four among these signs, Nos. 2, 7, 10, 21, are, as will appear further on,  $^4$  really archaic, but the remainder are partly secondary, partly tertiary cursive forms. To the last-mentioned belong in particular Nos. 4, 8, 11, 15 and 19. [8] Among the letters from the later inscriptions in line B, Nos. 9, 11, 12 and 19 appear in the Nāgārjunī cave inscriptions of Aśoka's grandson Daśaratha; Nos. 2, 6—8, 10, 13—16 and 21 in Khāravela's Hāthigumphā inscription and in the oldest Andhra inscriptions, Nāsik No. 1 and Nānāghāt, as well as in the archaic Mathurā inscriptions, all of which documents belong to the period between about B. C. 170 and 150. Nos. 1, 3 and 22 are still later, and occur first in the inscriptions of the Kuṣanas from Mathurā and in the Andhra and Ābhīra inscriptions from Nāsik of the first and second centuries A. D. Occasionally the Aśoka edicts show also the short top-stroke, the so-called Serif, which is so characteristic for the later alphabets and causes numerous modifications. Very commonly, too, appear the upward strokes for medial  $\bar{a}$  and e, the cursive rounded i (in Girnār sometimes not distinguishable from  $\bar{a}$ ), more rarely the later straight e-stroke, and once a looped e. Finally, the Anusvāra sometimes stands, as is generally the case in later times, above the letter after which it is pronounced.

The existence of so many local varieties, and of so very numerous cursive forms, proves in any case that writing had had a long history in Aśoka's time, and that the alphabet was then in a state of transition. The use of the cursive forms together with archaic ones may possibly be explained by the assumption that several, partly more archaic and partly more advanced, alphabets were simultaneously used during the third century B. C., and that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> C.MG. pl. 10, 2,

<sup>2</sup> See below, § 16, C.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> See below, § 16, B.

See below, § 4, A.

<sup>5</sup> See below, § 16, C.

<sup>6</sup> See below, 9 16, C.

<sup>7</sup> See below, § 16, D.

the writers, intending or ordered to use lapidary forms, through negligence mixed them with the more familiar cursive letters, as has also happened not rarely in later inscriptions. It is possible to adduce in favour of this view the above-mentioned tradition of the Dṛṣṭivāda, according to which a larger number of alphabets was in use about B. C. 300. The conjecture would become a certainty, if it could be shown that the word seto, "the white (elephant)," which has been added to Dhauli edict VI. in order to explain the sculpture above the middle column, was incised at the same time as the preceding edicts. The two characters of seto show the types of the Kuṣana and Gupta inscriptions. Though it is difficult to understand that, in later times, anybody should have cared to add the explanation of the relief, keeping exactly the line of the edict, the possibility of the assumption that this was actually done, is not altogether excluded.

The Eran coin with the legend running from the right to the left,2 offers a contribution to the earlier history of the Brāhmī. It shows the ancient sa with the straight side-stroke, but the later ma with the semicircular top, and the dha turned to the left. The coin probably dates from the time when the Brāhmī was written both from the right to the left and from the left to the right. Even if one makes due allowance for the fact that coins often reproduce archaic forms long gone out of fashion, one can only agree with Cunningham (CAI. 101), who thinks that the coin is older than the Maurya period; and one must allot it, if not to B. C. 400, at least to the middle of the fourth century. The time when the Brāhmī was written βουστροφηδών probably lies somewhat before the Maurya period, since the Aśoka edicts show only few traces of the writing from right to left, in the O of Jaugada and Dhauli and in the rare dha of Jaugada and Delhi-Sivālik (plate II, 8, VI, and 26, V, VI).3 In connection with this coin it is also necessary to mention the Patnā seals (C.ASR. 15, pl. 3, 1, 2), which very likely are older than the time of the Mauryas. The first with the legend Nadaya (Namdaya), "(the seal) of Nandā," shows a da open to the right, [9] and the second with the inscription Agapalasa  $(Amgap\bar{a}la\acute{s}\acute{a})$  shows an A in its original position (pl. II, 1, I). More important results for the history of the Brāhmī may be obtained from the Drāvidī of the relic caskets of Bhattiprolu,4 already referred to above. This alphabet contains, besides various characters agreeing with the southern variety of the Asoka edicts, (1) three signs, dh, d and bh, in the position of the writing running from right to left; (2) three signs, c, j and s, which are more archaic than those of the Asoka edicts and of the Eran coin; (3) two signs, l and l, derived independently from the old Semitic originals; (4) one new sign, gh, derived from g, the matrkagha of the Brahmi being at the same time discarded. The reasons for the assertions under 2 and 3 will be adduced in the next paragraph. But if the assertions themselves are true, it certainly follows that, whatever the age of the inscriptions may be, the Dravida alphabet separated from the main stock of the Brāhmī long before the Eran coin was struck, at the latest in the fifth century B. C.

This estimate carries us back to the period for which the Ceylonese canon proves the general use of writing in India, without however giving the name of the current alphabet. It seems therefore natural to conjecture that the alphabet known to the earliest Buddhist authors was a form of the Brāhmī; and there are some further facts which favour this view. Firstly, recent discoveries have made it evident that the Brāhmī has been commonly used since the earliest times even in North-Western India, and that it was indeed the real national script of all Hindus.<sup>5</sup> In the ruins of Taxila, the modern Shāh-Derī in the Pañjāb, coins have been found which are struck according to the old Indian standard, and some of which bear inscriptions in Kharoṣṭhī, while the majority show legends in the oldest type of the Brāhmī, sometimes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> B. ASBSI, 1, 115,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> C.CAI. pl. 11, 18, and plate II, col. I, of this work.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> If according to C.CMI, 27, as Mr. A. V. Smith points out to me, some coins of Mihirakula show inscriptions running from the right to the left, this peculiarity must be ascribed to Sassanian influence.

<sup>\*</sup> Plate II, cols. XIII—XV.

<sup>5</sup> C.CAI, 38 f.

together with transcripts in Kharosthi.1 These coins are certainly not later than the third century B. C. Perhaps they even date, as Cunningham thinks, from a much earlier time about B. C. 400. Some of them have been struck by negamā or guilds, those of the Dojaka or Dujaka, of the Tālimata and of the Atakatakā (?), and one with the inscription Vatasvaka probably was issued by a section of the tribe of the Aśvakas (Assakenoi), named after the vatatree, the Ficus religiosa. These finds decidedly establish the popular use of the Brāhmī in the Pañjāb, side by side with the Kharosthi, at least for the third century B. C. Mr. RAPSON'S discovery of Persian sigloi with letters in Kharosthi and in Brāhmi proves that both alphabets were used together much earlier.2 For, in all probability these sigloi were current during the rule of the Akhaemenians over North-Western India, or before B. C. 331.

Secondly, Dr. TAYLOR's view regarding the origin of the Kharosthi has become more and more probable, and it must now be admitted that this alphabet was developed out of the later Aramaic characters after the conquest of the Panjab by Darius, which happened about B. C. 500.3 And it becomes more and more difficult to refuse credence to the conjecture of A. Weber, E. Thomas and A. Cunningham, according to which the principles ruling the already developed Brāhmī have been utilised in the formation of the Kharoṣṭhī.4 According to our present information, the Kharosthī is the only alphabet, besides the Brāhmī, to which the Buddhists possibly could refer. But as it was only a secondary script even in Gandhāra, and as it was developed only in the fifth century, the possibility suggested becomes improbable, and the Brāhmī alone has a claim to be considered as the alphabet known to the authors of the Ceylonese canon.

# § 4. — The origin of the Brahma alphabet.5

[10] Among the numerous greatly differing proposals to explain the origin of the Brāhmī,6 there are five for which complete demonstrations have been attempted: — (1) A. Cunningham's derivation from indigenous Indian hieroglyphics;7 (2) A. Weber's derivation from the most ancient Phoenician characters; 8 (3) W. Deecke's derivation from the Assyrian cuneiform characters, through an ancient South-Semitic alphabet which is also the parent of the Sabaean or Himyaritic script;9 (4) I. TAYLOR'S derivation from a lost South-Arabian alphabet, the predecessor of the Sabaean; 10 (5) J. Halfeyy's derivation from a mixture of Aramaic, Kharosthi and Greek letters of the last quarter of the fourth century B. C.11

CUNNINGHAM'S opinion, which was formerly shared by some eminent scholars, presupposes the use of Indian hieroglyphic pictures, of which hitherto no trace has been found. On the other hand, the legend of the Eran coin, which runs from the right to the left, and the letters seemingly turned round in the opposite direction which appear rarely in the Aśoka edicts and more frequently in the Bhattiprolu inscriptions, point to the correctness of the view taken as granted in all the other attempts at explanation, viz., that Semitic signs are the prototypes of the Brāhma letters.

Among the remaining four proposals, J. Halévy's a priori improbable theory may be at once eliminated, as it does not agree with the literary and paleographic evidence just discussed, which makes it more than probable that the Brāhmī was used several centuries before the beginning of the Maurya period, and had had a long history at the time to which the earliest Indian inscriptions belong. It is more difficult to make a choice between A. Weber's derivation from the oldest North-Semitic alphabet, and the view of W. DEECKE and I. TAYLOR, who derive the Brāhmī from an ancient South-Semitic script. Neither the one nor the other derivation can be declared to be a priori impossible; for, the results of modern researches make

9 ZDMG. 31, 598 ff.

11 JA. 1885, 268 ff.; Revue Sém. 1895, 223 ff.

<sup>3</sup> See below, § 8. 4 See below, § 9, B, 4, 2 WZKM, 9, 65; B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 113. <sup>1</sup> C.CAI, pl. 2, 3. 7 C.IA (CII. 1), 52 ff. 6 R. N. Cust, Ling. and Or. Essays, 2nd Ser., 27-52. <sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 53—82.

<sup>8</sup> ZDMG. 10, 389 ff.; Ind. Skizzen 125 ff. 10 The Alphabet, 2, 314 ff.: restated with some modifications by F. Müller, Mélanges Harlez 212 ff.

a high antiquity probable for also the Sabaean script, and point to the conclusion that this alphabet not only is older than the oldest Indian inscriptions, but that it existed at a period for which no evidence for the use of writing in India is available. But according to these results, the question has to be put in a manner somewhat differing from that in which Deecke and Taylor have put it. The point to be ascertained is no longer, whether the Brāhmī can be derived from an unknown predecessor of the Sabaean alphabet, but whether it can be derived directly from the actually known Sabaean characters.

In all attempts at the derivation of alphabets, it is necessary to keep in mind three fundamental maxims, without which no satisfactory results can be obtained:—

- (1) For the comparison of the characters to be derived, the oldest and fullest forms must be used, and the originals from which they are derived must belong to the types of one and the same period.
- (2) The comparison may include only such irregular equations as can be supported by analogies from other cases where nations have borrowed foreign alphabets.
- (3) [11] In cases where the derivatives show considerable differences from the supposed prototypes, it is necessary to show that there are fixed principles, according to which the changes have been made.

If one wishes to keep to these principles in deriving the Brāhmī from Semitic signs, neither the Sabaean alphabet, nor its perhaps a little more archaic variety, the Lihyanian or Thammudaean,2 will serve the purpose, in spite of a general resemblance in the ductus and of a special resemblance in two or three letters. The derivations proposed by Deecke and Taylor do not fulfil the absolutely necessary conditions, and it will probably not be possible to obtain satisfactory results, even if all the impossible equations are given up, and the oldest Indian signs in every case are chosen for comparison. It would be necessary to assume that several Sabaean letters, such as Aleph, Gimel, Zain, Teth, Phe, Qoph, Resh, which show strong modifications of the North-Semitic forms, had been again made similar to their prototypes on being converted by the Hindus into A, ga, ja, tha, pa, kha and ra. In other cases, it would be impossible to show any connection between the Sabaean and the Indian signs. These difficulties disappear with the direct derivation of the Brahmi from the oldest North-Semitic alphabet, which shows the same type from Phoenicia to Mesopotamia. The few inadmissible equations which WEBER's earlier attempt contains, may be easily removed with the help of recently discovered forms, and it is not difficult to recognise the principles, according to which the Semitic signs have been converted into Indian ones.

An examination of the old Indian alphabet in plate II. reveals the following peculiarities:-

- (1) The letters are set up as straight as possible, and, with occasional exceptions in the case of *ta*, *tha* and *ba*, they are made equal in height.
- (2) The majority consist of vertical lines with appendages attached mostly at the foot, occasionally at the foot and at the top, or rarely in the middle; but there is no case in which an appendage has been added to the top alone.
- (3) At the top of the letters appear mostly the ends of verticals, less frequently short horizontal strokes, still more rarely curves on the tops of angles opening downwards, and, quite exceptionally, in ma and in one form of jha, two lines rising upwards. In no case does the top show several angles, placed side by side, with a vertical or slanting line hanging down, or a triangle or a circle with a pendant-line.

The causes of these characteristics of the Brāhmī are a certain pedantic formalism, found also in other Indian creations, a desire to frame signs suited for the formation of regular lines, and an aversion to top-heavy characters. The last peculiarity is probably due in part to the

<sup>1</sup> Mordtmann and D. H. Müller, Sab. Denkmaler (in DWA. Phil Hist. Cl. 31) p. 108 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> D. H. MÜLLER, Denkmaler aus Arabien (DWA. Phil. Hist. Cl. 37), p. 15 ff.

circumstance that since early times the Indians made their letters hang down from an imaginary or really drawn upper line, and in part to the introduction of the vowel-signs, most of which are attached horizontally to the tops of the consonants. Signs with the ends of verticals at the top were, of course, best suited for such a script. Owing to these inclinations and aversions of the Hindus, the heavy tops of many Semitic letters had to be got rid of, by turning the signs topsy-turvy or laying them on their sides, by opening the angles, and so forth. Finally, the change in the direction of the writing necessitated a further change, inasmuch as the signs had to be turned from the right to the left, as in Greek.

[12] The details of the derivation, for which, with the exception of the evidently identical Nos. 1, 3—7, 9, 12, 16, 17, 19—22, only a greater or smaller degree of probability can be claimed, are shown in the subjoined comparative table, which has been drawn by Mr. S. Pepper of Vienna. Cols. I, II, showing the oldest Phoenician characters and those from Mesa's stone, have been taken from Ph. Berger's Histoire de l'Écriture dans l'Antiquité, pp. 185, 202. Col. III. comes from Euting's Tabula Scripturae Aramaicae of 1892. And cols. IV—VI, with the exception of the signs marked by asterisks as hypothetical, are taken from plate II. of this work. With respect to the single letters, I add the following explanatory remarks, brief abstracts of those in my Indian Studies, III², p. 58 ff.

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<sup>1</sup> Compare Beruni's India, 1, 172 (SACHAU).

## A. — Borrowed signs.

No. 1, A, col. V, = Aleph, cols. I, II (Weber doubtfully), [13] turned from right to left except on the Patna seal (above, § 3, and pl. II, 1, I), with transposition of the vertical line to the end of the angle. — No. 2, ba, col. V, a, b, c, = Beth, cols. I, II (WEBER); the opening of the triangular top produced first a sign like that in col. IV, next the rhombus, col. V, a, and finally the square and the oblong, col. V, b, c. - No. 3, ga, col. V. = Gimel, cols. I, II. - No. 4, dhar col. V, a, b, = Daleth, cols. I, II (Weber), set up straight with rounded back (compare the halfangular forms, pl. II, 26, IX, XIX, XXIII, and the triangular, pl. III, 24, VII-XIII), with or without the turn from right to left. - No. 5, ha, col. V, = He (Weber doubtfully). the Siddapura form, col. V, a, being probably derived from the He of col. III, a (Mina of Salmanassar, before B. C. 725), which was turned topsy-turvy and from right to left. The more similar He of the sixth century B. C. (col. III, b) cannot be the prototype, because it occurs in the period when the Brāhmī had been developed, and because then the Semitic Aleph, Daleth, Cheth, Theth, Waw, and Qoph had become cursive and had been changed so much that they could no longer have produced the Indian forms. - No. 6, va, col. V, a, b, = Waw, col. II (Weber doubtfully), turned topsy-turvy and with the lower end shut. - No. 7, ja, col. V, = Zain, cols. I, II (Weber); a displacement of the two bars produced the Dravidi letter. col. V, a; from this was derived, the letter being made with one stroke of the pen, the ja of the northern Brāhmī, col. V, b, with a loop, for which, owing to the use of ink, a dot was substituted in the ja of col. V, c. The usual Girnār form, col. V, d, was also derived from the Dravida form, the letter being made with two strokes of the pen.

No. 8, gha, col. V, a, b, = Cheth, cols. I, II (TAYLOR), the Semitic sign being laid on its side, col. IV (on account of its often sloping position), and the upper horizontal bar being changed into a vertical. - No. 9, tha, col. V, = Theth, col. I (WEBER), with the substitution of a dot for the cross in the centre, just as in the Assyrian letter, col. III. - No. 10, ya, col. V, = Yod (WEBER), the Yod of cols. I, II, being laid on its side, col. IV, the central stroke being lengthened; and, the pendant on the right being turned upwards, hence first the ya of col. V, a, and later the cursive forms in col. V, b, c. — No. 11, ka, col. V, a, b, = Kaph, the upper side-bar of a form like that in col. II. having been converted into the top of the vertical, and the sign being then set up straight. - No. 12, la, col. V, = Lamed, cols. I, II (Weber), preserved in its original position in the slightly differentiated ! of the Drāviḍī, col. VI (see below, B, 4, c), and in the Eran form, col. IV, with the Serif on the top of the curve, turned from right to left in the usual form of the Aśoka edicts, col. V, a, and turned with a tail on the right, but without the Serif, in the Drāvidī l, col. V, b. — No. 13, ma, col. V, = Mem (WEBER), derived from a form like that in col. II, with the change of the bent pendant into a loop, as in the hypothetical form in col. IV (analogous development in Euting, TSA. col. 58, a), and with superposition of the angle on the loop, col. V, a (analogous development in Euting, TSA. col. 59, c), whence the cursive form with semicircle at the top in col. V, b. - No. 14, na, col. V, = Nun (TAYLOR), the Nun in cols. I, II, being turned topsy-turvy as in col. IV, and the hook at the foot being converted into a straight stroke, for which development the  $\tilde{n}a$ , col. VI, a, formed out of the hypothetical sign by a regularisation of the hook and the addition of a differentiating bar at the top (see below B, 4, d), appears to be a witness.

No. 15, sa, sa, cols. V, IV, = Samekh (Weber doubtfully); a Samekh like that of col. I, b, being made cursive by the Hindus, as shown in col. IV, and turned topsy-turvy, [14] whereby the Drāviḍa s, col. V, was obtained, which originally served both for s and s. Later, this sign was divided into the signs for the etymologically connected sa and sa. By transferring the cross-bar to the outside of the curve, arose the sa of the southern Brāhmī in col. VI, a, and (turned round) that in col. VI, b, while the removal of the bar to the inside of the curve produced the sa of the same script, col. VI, c. The Drāviḍī adopted the new sa for its s, and retained the old sign for s. The northern Brāhmī developed out of the southern sa that with

the curve, col. VI, d, and out of this a new a, col. VI, a. An immediate derivation of the Drāvida a from the Samella of the sixth century B. C. in col. III. is not possible, for the reasons stated under No. 5, and because the characteristic ancient cross-bar is wanting in it. — No. 16, a, col. V, a, and col. III (Weber), the Indian sign being changed slightly or not at all in the ancient forms of Kālsī, col. IV. and col. V, a, as well as in that of Sāñci and Hāthigumphā, col. V, a, but later made triangular, col. V, a, a, in order to avoid a confusion with a and a and a and a. No. 17, a, col. V, a phe, cols. I, II (Weber), turned topsy-turvy; in its original position in the Eran form, col. IV; turned sideways in col. V.

No. 18, ca, col. V. = Tsade, cols. I, II, turned topsy-turvy, the second hook on the right being bent at the same time towards the vertical as in the hypothetical form of col. IV, whence arose, with the turn sideways, the angular or round ca of the Brāhmī in col. V, a, b, and the tailed one of the Drāvidī, col. V, c. - No. 19, kha, col. V, = Qoph, cols. I, II, turned topsy-turvy with the addition of a curve at the top, col. V, a, in order to distinguish the letter from va. Owing to the use of ink, the circle at the foot was converted into a dot, col. V, b. -No. 20, ra, col. V, = Resh, cols. I, II (WEBER), the triangular head of the letter being opened and the vertical attached to the base of the former triangle, whence arose the forms in col. V, a, b, and later the ornamental ones, col. V, c, d, in which the angles were repeated. — No. 21, śa, col. V, = Shin, cols. I, II (Weber), the two angles, standing side by side, being placed the one inside the other, and the sign being then turned topsy-turvy, col. V, a, b, c. The more closely resembling Aramaic Shin of the sixth century B. C., col. III, cannot be the prototype of  $\delta a$ , for the same reasons as those stated above under No. 5, and is merely an analogous transformation, which the Aramaeans, Phoenicians and Ethiopians have made independently at various periods. The older form with two angles has been preserved in the western sign for  $100 = \delta u$  (see my Indian Studies, III2, 71, 117). — No. 22, ta, col.  $V_{r} = Taw$ , cols. I, II (Weber); from a form like that of Sinjirli, col. III, b, or the Assyrian of the time of Salmanassar, col. III, a, was derived the ta of col. V, a, b, and hence the regularised form of col. V, c.

#### B. - Derivative consonants and initial vowels.

The derivative signs, invented by the Hindus themselves, have been formed by means of the following contrivances:—

- (1) One of the elements of a phonetically cognate letter is transposed: (a) in sa and sa, where the cross-bar of the oldest sign has been displaced (see above, A, No. 15); (b) in da, which has been derived from dha (Weber) by dividing the vertical stroke, and by attaching the two pieces to the upper and lower ends of the curve, whence first the da of the Drāvidī and of the Patnā seal, No. 4, col. VI, a, was derived, and, with the turn to the left, the ordinary form of the Brāhmī, No. 4, col. VI, b, and further the angular da, No. 4, col. VI, f.
- (2) A borrowed or derivative letter is mutilated in order to obtain one with a similar phonetic value: (a) from da, No. 4, col. VI, a, comes [15] by the removal of the lower end the half round da of Kālsī and the later southern inscriptions, col. VI, c; similarly, from the angular da, col. VI, g, the ordinary angular da, col. VI, h, of the Aśoka edicts (Weber); (b) from tha, No. 9, col. V, comes tha, col. VI, a, by the removal of the central dot; and from the latter again ta, col. VI, b, is derived by bisection, the round tha being considered as the product of an unaspirated letter and a curve of aspiration, which appears (see below, 5) in various other letters (Weber); (c) from the triangular E, No. 16, col. V, c, d, e, comes the I with three dots, col. VI, B, a, b, c, which just indicate the outlines of the older sign (Prinser), the derivation being suggested by the fact that grammatically e is the guṇa-vowel of i, for which therefore a lighter form of e appeared suitable; (d) through a bisection of the lower portion of va, No. 6, col. V, b, and a straightening of the remaining pendant, is derived U, col. VI, a (see

my Indian Studies, III<sup>2</sup>, 74), the derivation being suggested by the fact that u commonly represents va in weak grammatical forms ( $sampras\bar{a}rana$ ); (e) if the later small circle (pl. IV, 38, VI) is the original form of the Anusvāra, No. 13, col. VI, a, b, and the dot a cursive substitute, the sign may be explained as a mutilated small ma, which has lost the angle at the top, and has been thus treated like the small vowelless consonants appearing in the inscriptions of the first centuries A. D. (see, e, g, pl. III, 41, VIII); compare also the derivation of the Kharosthī Anusvāra from ma (see below, § 9, B, 4).

- (3) Short horizontal strokes, which originally, before the change in the direction of the writing, stood on the left, are used to derive the long vowels  $\overline{A}$ , No. 1, col. VI, and  $\overline{U}$ , No. 6, col. VI, d, from short A and U. On account of the peculiar shape of I, a dot is used instead for the formation of  $\overline{I}$ , No. 16, col. VI, B, g.
- (4) Short horizontal strokes, originally added on the right, denote a change in the quality of the sounds: (a) in O, No. 6, col. VI, f, g, derived from U, col. VI, a (with the bar in the original and the later position), because grammatically o is the guṇa-vowel of u; (b) in AI, No. 16, col. VI, A, b, derived from E, because grammatically ai is the vṛddhi-vowel of e; (c) in the l of the Drāviḍi, No. 12, col. VI, from the original form of la (Lamed), cols. I, II, in which case the bar still stands on the right, because the letter has not been turned; (d) in ña, No. 14, col. VI, a, from the original inverted Nun, col. IV; compare above under A, No. 14; (e) in ha (see my Indian Studies, III 2, pp. 31, 76; also page 35, below, § 16, C, 12) from na, No. 14, col. V, with a displacement of the lower horizontal stroke towards the right, the letter being kept in its original position; (f) in ṇa, No. 14, col. VI, b, from na, the bar protruding at both sides of the vertical in order to avoid the identity with nā, ne and O.
- (5) The aspiration is expressed by a curve in the gh of the Drāvidī, No. 3, col. VI, formed out of g, and in the ordinary Brāhmī dha, No. 4, col. VI, d, from da, col. VI, c, in pha, No. 17, col. VI, from pa, col. V, and in cha, No. 18, col. VI, a; in the last sign the curve has been attached to both ends of the vertical, and this proceeding led to the development of the cursive cha of col. VI, b. More rarely a hook is substituted for the curve, and then the original sign is mutilated; thus bha, No. 2, col. VI, is derived from ba by omitting the base-stroke, and fha, No. 7, col. VI, from the Drāvida f, col. V, f, by dropping both bars at the ends of the vertical. Both the hook and the curve are cursive substitutes for f, which in the Tibetan alphabet is used again in order to form f, f, f, f.
- (6) [16] The !a of the Brāhmī, No. 4, col. VI, e, has been derived, by the addition of a small semicircle, for which we have an open angle in Sāūci (pl. II, 41, XVIII), from the half round da of col. VI, c, the derivation being very probably suggested by the phonetic affinity of da to !a, which two letters are frequently exchanged in Vedic and classical Sanskrit and in the Prākrit dialects.

# C. — Medial vowels and absence of vowel in ligatures.

### (1) — The system of the Brāhmī.

In accordance with the expressions of the Sanskrit phonologists and grammarians, who take into account the spoken language alone<sup>2</sup> and who call the k-sound  $ka-k\bar{a}ra$ , the g-sound  $ga-k\bar{a}ra$ , &c., the medial a is inherent in all consonants, and consequently medial  $\bar{a}$  is expressed by the stroke which distinguishes A from  $\bar{A}$ .

The other medial vowels are either the full initial vowel-signs or cursive derivatives from them, which are placed mostly at the top or rarely at the foot of the consonants. The identity of the medial o with the initial O is distinctly recognisable in all letters with verticals at the

top, as in ko, No. 6, col. VI, h, i, where, on the removal of the dagger-shaped k below the second cross-bar, the signs in col. VI, f, g, reappear; compare also go in mago, Girnar edict I, line 11, where an initial O has been placed above g. In the Jaugada edicts, where only the O of col. VI, f, occurs, the medial o has invariably the same form. But in Girnar we have both forms of o, though there is only the O of col. VI, g. Similarly, the full initial U is recognisable in the combinations with consonants ending in verticals, as in ku, pl. II, 9, V; du, 20, VII; du, 25, V; bhu, 31, III, V (compare § 16, D, 4); and in the dhu of Kālsī, No. 6, col. VI, b: more usually u is represented cursively, either by the horizontal stroke of U, as in dhu, No. 6, col. VI, c, or by its vertical as in cu, pl. II, 13, III, and dhu, 26, II, &c. Medial  $\bar{u}$  is identical with  $\bar{U}$ , if combined with consonants ending in verticals; elsewhere it is cursively expressed by two lines, commonly placed horizontally, as in dhû, No. 6, col. VI, e: but in the later inscriptions we occasionally find the  $\bar{U}$  of the period used for the medial vowel.<sup>1</sup> Medial  $\imath$  was probably at first expressed by the three dots of the initial I (ki, No. 16, col. VI, B, d), which afterwards were joined cursively by lines and converted into the angle used in most of the Aśoka edicts (ki, col. VI, B, e). The medial i has been developed out of the latter form by the addition of a stroke, indicating that the vowel is long (kī, col. VI, B, f; see above, under B, 3). In order to express medial e, the triangle of the initial E has been reduced cursively first to an angle, open on the left, as in ge, pl. II, 11, III, and more commonly to a straight line (ke, No. 16, col. VI, A, a). In accordance with the form of the initial AI, which consists of E and a horizontal bar, medial ai is expressed by two parallel horizontal strokes (thai, No. 16, col. VI, A, c).

The absence of a vowel is indicated by interlacing the sign for the consonants immediately following each other, and in such ligatures the second sign is often mutilated; see below, § 16, E, 2. This proceeding appears to be a practical illustration of the term samyuktākṣara, "a joined or ligature syllable," by which the phonologists and grammarians denote a syllable beginning with more consonants than one.

## (2) - The system of the Drāvidī.

The notation of the medial vowels in the inscriptions of Bhattiprolu differs from the usual one in so far as medial a is marked by the Brāhmī sign for  $\bar{a}$ , and medial  $\bar{a}$  by a horizontal stroke from the end of which a vertical one hangs down; see ka, pl. II, 9, XIII;  $k\bar{a}$ , 9, XIV. Hence the consonants have no inherent a. The device is no doubt of later origin, and has been invented in order to avoid the necessity for ligatures.

# § 5. — The time and the manner of the borrowing of the Semitic alphabet.<sup>2</sup>

with the oldest types of the North-Semitic signs, which are found in the archaic Phoenician inscriptions and on the stone of Mesa, incised about B. C. 890. But two characters, ha and ta, are derived from Mesopotamian forms of He and Taw, which belong to the middle of the eighth century B. C., and two, sa-sa and sa, resemble Aramaic signs of the sixth century B. C. As the literary and epigraphic evidence leaves no doubt that the Hindus were not unlettered during the period B. C. 600—500, and as the other signs of the Aramaic alphabet of this period, such as Beth, Daleth, Waw, &c., are too far advanced to be considered as the prototypes of the corresponding Brāhma letters, it becomes necessary to regard the seemingly modern forms of sa, sa and śa as the results of an Indian development, analogous to that of the corresponding Aramaic characters. This assumption, of course, remains tenable only as long as the two Aramaic letters are not shown to be more ancient by new epigraphic discoveries, which event, to judge from the results of the Sinjirli finds, does not seem to be impossible. But, for the present, they must be left out of consideration in fixing the terminus a quo

See below, § 24, B, 3; pl. IV, 30, XII, XIV; pl. VII, 30, XII, XX, XXI.

for the importation of the Semitic alphabet into India; and this terminus falls between the time of the incision of Mesa's inscription and of those on the Assyrian weights, from about B. C. 890 to about B. C. 750, probably a little more towards the lower than towards the upper limit, or, roughly reckoning, about B. C. 800. And various circumstances make it probable that this was actually the time when the Semitic letters became known to the Hindus,

As the ha and the ta of the Brāhmi are derived from forms of He and Taw not found in the Phoenician inscriptions but only in Mesopotamia, it appears probable that this is the Semitic country from which the letters were brought over. It agrees with this inference, that the most ancient Indian works speak of sea-voyages in the Indian Ocean at a very early period. and sea-borne trade, carried on by Hindu Vānias in the same waters, is mentioned in later, but still ancient, times. The well-known Baveru Jataka2 bears witness to an early export trade of the Vanias to Babylon; and the form of the word, in which the second part ilu is represented by eru, points to its having arisen in Western India, where ra is occasionally substituted for la. as in the Girnar and Shahbazgarhi form Turamaya for Ptolemaios. Several other Jatakas, e. a. No. 463, which describe sea-voyages, name the ancient ports of Western India, Bharukaecha (the modern Broach) and Śūrpāraka (now Supārā), which were centres of the trade with the Persian Gulf in the first centuries A. D. and much later. As according to the Jatakas the Vanias started from these towns, it is probable that these trade-routes were used much earlier. Two of the most ancient Dharmasūtras likewise bear witness to the earlier existence of trade by sea in India and particularly on the western coast. Baudhayana, II, 2, 2, forbids Brahmans to undertake voyages by sea, and prescribes a severe penance for a breach of the rule. But he admits, 1, 2, 4, that the "Northerners," were not strict in this respect. As the other offences of the "Northerners," mentioned in the same passage, such as dealing in wool, selling animals with two rows of teeth, i. e. horses and mules, show, the term applies to the inhabitants of western and north-western India. It naturally follows that the seavoyages referred to were made to western Asia. The same author, I, 18, 14, and the still older Gautama Dharmasūtra, 10, 33, mention the duties payable to the king on merchandise imported by sea.3 In accordance with my estimate of the age of the Dharmasūtras and of the materials out of which the Jatakas have been made up. I look upon these statements as referring to the 8th-6th centuries B. C.4 From still earlier times dates the well-known Vedic myth of the shipwreck of Bhujyu "in the ocean where there is no support, no rest for the foot or the hand," and of his being saved on the "hundred-oared galley" of the Asvins.<sup>5</sup> The scene of action must of course lie in the Indian Ocean, and the story points to the inference [18] that the Hindus navigated these waters during the earliest Vedic period. As, in addition, Semitic legends such as that of the Flood and of Manu's preservation by a miraculous fish occur in the Brahmanas, we have a sufficient number of facts to furnish some support for the conjecture that Hindu traders, who probably learnt the language of the country, just as their modern descendants learn Arabic and Suahili and other African languages, may have imported from Mesopotamia not only the alphabet, but perhaps also other technical contrivances, such as brickmaking which was so important for the construction of the ancient Brahmanical altars. With this assumption, which under the circumstances stated appears at least not quite unfounded, the Indian Vanias are credited with having rendered the same service to their countrymen which Sambhota or Thon-mi did to the Tibetans, when he fetched the elements of their alphabet from Magadha, between A. D. 630 and 660.7

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> According to Benfey, Indien 254, the Semitic alphabet came to India from Phoenicia; according to A. Weber, Ind. Skizzen 187, either from Phoenicia or from Babylonia.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> No. 339, FAUSBÖLL, 3, 126; compare also Fick, Die sociale Gliederung im nordöstl. Indien, 178 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SBE, 2, 228; 14, 146, 200, 217; comp. Manu, 3, 158; 8, 157, 406, and Dahlmann, Das Mahābhārata, 176 ff.

 <sup>♣</sup> B.IS, III<sup>2</sup>, 16 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> RV. 1, 116, 5; compre Oldenberg, Vedische Religion, 214.

<sup>6</sup> OLDENBERG, op. cit. 276.

<sup>7</sup> J.ASB. 57, 41 f.

In any case, it is a priori probable that the Vāṇias were the first to adopt the Semitic alphabet, for they, of course, came most into contact with foreigners, and they must have felt most strongly the want of some means for recording their business transactions. The Brahmans wanted the art of writing less urgently, since they possessed, as passages of the Rgveda show, from very early times a system of oral tradition for the preservation of their literary treasures.

Nevertheless, the oldest known form of the Brāhmī is, without a doubt, a script framed by learned Brahmans for writing Sanskrit. This assertion is borne out not only by the remnants of the Gaya alphabet of Asoka's stone-masons, which must have contained signs for the Sanskrit vowels AI and AU, and which is arranged according to phonetic principles, but also by the influence of phonetic and grammatical principles which is clearly discernible in the formation of the derivative signs. The hand of the phonologist and grammarian is recognisable in the following points: (1) the development of five nasal letters and of a sign for nasalisation in general from two Semitic signs, as well as of a complete set of signs for the long vowels,3 which latter are very necessary for the phonologist and grammarian, but not for men of business, and are therefore unknown in other ancient alphabets; (2) the derivation of the signs for the phonetically very different, but grammatically cognate, sa and sa from one Semitic sign (Samekh); (3) the notation of U by the half of va, from which the vowel is frequently derived by samprasāraņa; (4) the derivation of O from U (o being the guna-vowel of u) by the addition of a stroke; of I by a simplification of the sign for its guna-vowel E; of AI, the vrddhivowel, from E the guna-vowel of I; and of la from da, the former consonant being frequently a substitute for the latter, as in ile for ide; (5) the non-expression of medial a, in accordance with the teaching of the grammarians who consider it to inhere in every consonant; the expression of medial  $\bar{a}$  by the difference between A and  $\bar{A}$ , and of the remaining medial yowels by combinations of the initial ones, or of cursive simplifications of the same, with the consonants, as well as of the absence of vowels by ligatures of the consonants, which apparently illustrate the grammatical term samyuktāksara. All this has so learned an appearance and is so artificial that it can only have been invented by Pandits, not by traders or clerks. The fact that the Vāṇias and the accountants until recent times used to omit all medial vowels in their correspondence and account-books, permits even the inference that an Indian alphabet, elaborated by such men, would not possess any such vowel-signs. And it is immaterial for the correctness of this inference, whether the modern defective writing is a survival from the most ancient period or is due to the introduction of the Arabic alphabet in the middle ages.

A prolonged period must, of course, have elapsed between the first introduction of the Semitic alphabet by the merchants, its adoption by the Brahmans which probably did not take place at once, and the elaboration of the 46 radical signs of the Brāhmī together with its system of medial vowels and ligatures.

As, according to the results of the preceding enquiry, the elaboration of the Brāhmī was completed about B. C. 500, or perhaps even earlier, the terminus a quo, about B. C. 800, may be considered as the actual date of the introduction of the Semitic alphabet into India. This estimate is, however, [19] merely a provisional one, which may be modified by the discovery of new epigraphic documents in India or in the Semitic countries. If such a modification should become necessary, the results of the recent finds induce me to believe that the date of the introduction will prove to fall earlier, and that it will have to be fixed perhaps in the tenth century B. C., or even before that.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. Westergaard, Zwei Abhandlungen 37 ff.

Comp. Wackernagel, Altind. Grammatik 1, LVII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> RV, 7, 103, 5; comp. M.M.HASL, 506.

## II. THE KHAROSTHI SCRIPT.

## § 6. - How it was deciphered.

The Indian alphabet running from right to left, the Kharoshhī lipi,¹ has been deciphered exclusively by European scholars, among whom Masson, J. Prinser, Ch. Lassen, E. Norris, and A. Cunningham must be particularly mentioned.² The coins of the Indo-Grecian and Indo-Scythian kings with Greek and Prākrit inscriptions furnished the first clue to the value of the letters. The results, which the identifications of the royal names and titles seemed to furnish, were partly confirmed, partly rectified and enlarged, by the discovery of the Shāhbāzgarhī version of the Aśoka edicts and E. C. Bayley's Kāngrā inscription in Brāhmī and Kharoshī. The characters of the Aśoka edicts are readable with full certainty, with the exception of a few ligatures (see below, § 11, C, 3, 4). Similarly, the inscriptions of the Sakas offer no difficulties, and the new MS. of the Dhammapada from Khotan³ is in general not difficult to read. But considerable portions of the inscriptions of the Parthian Guduphara and of the Kuṣana kings Kaniṣka and Huviṣka, still resist the attempts of decipherers and interpreters.

## § 7. — Use and characteristics.

In its form, known to us at present, the Kharoṣṭhī is an ephemeral, chiefly epigraphic, alphabet of North-Western India. The majority of the inscriptions written in Kharoṣṭhī have been found between 69°—73° 30′ E. Long. and 33°—35° N. Lat., in the ancient province of Gandhāra, the modern eastern Afghanistan and the northern Pañjāb; and the oldest documents are confined to the districts the capitals of which were Taxıla (Shāh-Derī) to the east of the Indus, and Puṣkalāvatī or Carsādā (Hashtnagar) to the west of the river. Single inscriptions have turned up further south-west in Bhāwalpur near Multān, south in Mathurā, and south-east in Kāngrā, and single words or letters in Bharahut, Ujjain and Maisūr (Siddāpura Aśoka edicts). Coins, cameos and MSS. with Kharoṣṭhī characters have been carried much further north and north-east. The period during which, according to the documentary evidence at present available, the Kharoṣṭhī seems to have been used in India, extends from the fourth century B. C. to about the third century A. D., the earliest letters occurring on the Persian sigloi (§ 8) and the latest perhaps on the Gandhāra sculptures and the Kuṣana inscriptions. As the note in the Fawanshulin of A. D. 668 (see above, § 1) shows, the Buddhists preserved a knowledge of the existence of the alphabet much longer.

Hitherto, the Kharoṣthī has been found (1) in stone-inscriptions, (2) on metal plates and vases, (3) on coins, (4) on cameos, and (5) on a longer known small piece of birch bark from a Stūpa in Afghanistan<sup>6</sup> and on the Bhūrja MS. of the Dhammapada from Khotan. The latter MS. has probably been written in Gandhāra during the Kuṣana period. The dialect of its text shows characteristic affinities to that of the Shāhbāzgarhī version of the Aśoka edicts, and

<sup>1</sup> Regarding the name, see § 1 above, and B.IS. III2, 113 f

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> P.IA. 1, 178—185; 2, 128—143; W.AA. 242 ff; J.ASB. 23, 714; C.ASR. 1, VIII; Centenary Review 2, 69—81; C.CIS. 3 ff.; SENART, IP. 1, 22 ff.; ZDMG. 43, 129 ff.

<sup>3</sup> See the next paragraph.

<sup>\*</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 47-53; C.ASR. 2, 82 ff., pl. 59, 68; 5, 1 ff., pl. 16, 28, W.AA. 55 ff.; C.CAI. 31 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, loc. cit.; the question of the lower limit of the use of the Kharosthi is difficult on account of the uncertainty regarding the dates of Kaniska and his two successors, all of whom S. Lavi now places in the first cent. A. D. (JA. 1897, 1, 1 ft.). The limit given above is based on the assumption that Kaniska's dates refer to the Saka era or to the fourth cent. of the Seleucian era—I still make use of it, not because I consider it to be unassailable, but for the reasons stated in WZKM. 1, 169. The letters in the inscriptions of Samyat 200 and 276 or 286 (Hashinagar image) look more ancient than those of the Kusana inscriptions. According to a communication from Dr. Th. Bloch, Prof. Hoernle has read dates of the fourth cent. of the same unknown Samyat on recently found Gandhara sculptures.

<sup>\*</sup> W.AA. pl. 3 at p. 54, No. 11; similar twists have been found in other Stupas, see op. cit. 60, 84, 94, 106; but the fragments in the British Museum, said to belong to them, show no letters.

its characters agree very closely with those of the Wardak vase.<sup>1</sup> On the metal plates and vases, [20] the letters frequently consist of rows of dots, or have been first punched in in this manner and afterwards scratched in with a stilus.<sup>2</sup> On stone vases they are sometimes written with ink.<sup>3</sup>

In spite of its frequent utilisation for epigraphic documents, the Kharoṣṭhī is a popular script, destined for clerks and men of business. This is proved by the throughout highly cursive character of the letters, by the absence of long vowels, which are useless for the purposes of common daily life, by the expression of groups of unaspirated double consonants by single ones (ka for kha) and of unaspirated and aspirated ones by the latter alone (kha for kha), and by the invariable use of the Anusvāra for all vowelless medial nasals. The discovery of the Khotan MS. makes it very improbable that there existed another form of the script which, being more similar to the Brāhmī in completeness, would have been more suitable for the Brahmanical Sāstras.

# § 8. — Origin.5

The direction of the Kharosthi from right to left made it a priori highly probable that its elements had been borrowed from the Semites; and the almost exact agreement of the forms for na, ba, ra and va with Aramaic signs of the transitional type induced E. Thomas to assume a closer connection of the Kharosthi with this alphabet.6 His view has never been disputed; but of late it has been given a more precise form by I. TAYLOR and A. CUNNINGHAM, who assign the introduction of the Aramaic letters into India to the first Akhaemenians.7 The reasons which may be adduced for this opinion are as follows: - (1) The Aśoka edicts from the western Panjab use for "writing, edict," the word dipi, which evidently has been borrowed from the Old Persian, and they derive from it the verbs dipati, "he writes," and dipapati, "he causes to write;" see above, § 2, B. (2) The districts where Kharosthi inscriptions occur. especially in earlier times, are just those parts of India which probably were subject to the Persians, be it with or without interruptions, from about B. C. 500 to 331. (3) Among the Persian sigloi, there are some marked with single syllables in Kharosthī and Brāhmī, whence it may be inferred that they were struck in India during the Persian period, and that the Kharosthī was current during a great part of the fourth century B. C., certainly before the fall of the Persian empire in B. C. 331. Some considerable variations in the Kharosthī letters of the Aśoka edicts, as well as the strongly cursive forms of several ligatures, such as sta, spa, &c. (see below, § 11, C, 2, 3), likewise point to the conclusion that the alphabet had had a long history before the middle of the third century B. C. (4) Recent discoveries in Semitic epigraphy make it extremely probable that the Aramaic, which was used already in Assyria and Babylon for official and business purposes side by side with the cuneiform writing, was very widely spread during the rule of the Akhaemenians. Numerous Aramaic inscriptions of this period have been found in Egypt, Arabia, and Asia Minor, and one even in Persia. Besides. Egypt has furnished a number of official Aramaic papyri, and Asia Minor many coins with Aramaic legends, struck by Persain satraps.9 In addition, there is the curious statement in the Book of Ezra, IV, 7, according to which the Samaritans sent to Artaxerxes a letter written in the Arāmī script and language. Taking all these points together, there are sufficient reasons to warrant the assertion that Aramaic was commonly employed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See S. v. Oldenburg, Predvaritelnae zamjetkao Buddhiiskoi rukopisi, napisannoi pismenami Kharosthi, St. Petersburg, 1897, and Senart, Acad. des Inscrs, Comptes rendus, 1897, 251 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 10, 325. <sup>8</sup> W.AA. 111. <sup>4</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 97 f. <sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 92 ff. <sup>6</sup> P.IA. 2, 144 ff.; regarding Kharosthī legends on late coins running from left to right, see Proc. J.ASB. 1895,

 <sup>7</sup> I. TAYLOB, The Alphabet, 2, 261 f.; C.CAI. 33.
 8 J.RAS, 1895, 865 ff.
 9 CLERMONT-GANNEAU, Revue Archéologique, 1878-79; Ph. Berger, Hist. de l'Écrit. dans l'Antiquité, 214, 218 ff.

not only in the offices of the satraps, but also in the royal secretariate at Susa. The ultimate cause for the official use of the Aramaic script and language during the Akhaemenian period was, no doubt, that numerous Aramaeans held appointments as clerks, accountants, mint-masters and so forth in the Persian Civil Service. [21] When the Persian empire was rapidly built up on the ruins of more ancient monarchies, its rulers must have found the employment of the trained subalterns of the former governments, among whom the Aramaeans were foremost, not only convenient, but absolutely unavoidable. In these circumstances, it is but natural to assume that, after the full organisation of the administration by Darius, the Persian satraps introduced Aramaean subordinates into the Indian provinces, and thereby forced their Indian subjects, especially the clerks of the native princes and of the heads of towns and villages, to learn Aramaic. At first, the intercourse between the Persian and the Indian offices probably led to the use of the Aramaic letters for the north-western Prākrit, and later to modifications of this alphabet, which were made according to the principles of the older Indian Brāhmī,¹ and through which the Kharosthī finally arose. The adoption of the Arabic alphabet. during the middle ages and in modern times, for writing a number of Indian dialects, is somewhat analogous, as it likewise happened under foreign pressure, and as its characters were and are used either without or with modifications. (5) With these last conjectures agrees the general character of the Kharosthi, which is clearly intended for clerks and men of business: see above, § 7. (6) Finally, they are confirmed by the circumstance that the majority of the Kharosthī signs can be most easily derived from the Aramaic types of the fifth century B. C. which appear in the Saggarah and Teima inscriptions of B. C. 482 and of about B. C. 500, while a few letters agree with somewhat earlier forms on the later Assyrian weights and the Babylonian seals and gems, and two or three are more closely allied to the later signs of the Lesser Teima inscription, the Stele Vaticana, and the Libation-table from the Serapeum. The whole ductus of the Kharosthī, with its long-drawn and long-tailed letters, is that of the characters on the Mesopotamian weights, seals and cameos, which re-occurs in the inscriptions of Saqqārah, Teima and the Serapeum. Others2 have compared the writing of the Aramaic papyri from Egypt, which partly at least, like the Taurinensis, belong to the Akhaemenian period. But it does not suit so well. Many of its signs are so very cursive that they cannot be considered as the prototypes of the Kharosthī letters, and its ductus is that of a minute current handwriting. Some special resemblances appear to be, on a closer investigation, the results of analogous developments. Taking all these points together, the Kharosthī appears to have been elaborated in the fifth century B. C.

#### § 9. — Details of the derivation.

The subjoined comparative table illustrates the details of the derivation. The signs in col. I. have been taken (with the exception of No. 10, col. I, a) from EUTING'S Tabula Scripturae Aramaicae, 1892, cols. 6, 8, 9, 11 and 12; those in col. II, from the same work, cols. 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, and those in cols. III, IV, from plate 1 of this manual; and all have been reproduced by photolithography.

## A. - Borrowed signs.3

Preliminary remarks. — The changes of the Aramaic signs have been caused chiefly by the following principles: (1) by a decided predilection for long-tailed signs with appendages at the upper end, the foot being left free for the addition of u, ra and the Anusvāra, and by an aversion to appendages at the foot alone; (2) by an aversion to signs with heads containing

<sup>1</sup> Weber, Ind. Skizzen, 144 f., E. Thomas, P.IA. 2, 146; C.CAI. 33; and below, § 9, B, 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> J. Halevy, JA. 1885, 2, 243—267, believes the Kharosthi to have been derived about B. C. 330 from 16 signs of the papyri and of a Cilician coin, and, Revue Sémitique, 1895, 372 ff., from the script of the papyri and of the ostraka from Egypt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 99 ff.; compare the more or less differing attempts of E. Thomas, P.IA. 2, 147; I. Taylob, The Alphabet, 2, plate at p. 236 ff.; J. Halžvy, JA. 1885, 2, 252 ff., Revue Sémitique, 1895, 372 ff.

more than two lines rising upwards, [22] or with transverse strokes through the top-line, or with pendants hanging down from it,—all of which peculiarities would have been awkward for the insertion of the vowels i, e and o; (3) by a desire to differentiate the signs which, altered according to these principles, would have become identical.

2 44 250 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	7 7
2   49   7   7   7   7   7   7   7   7   7	7 3
2   99   250   7   X X   9   9	, ,
3 A A P P P 7 4 Y S E 7 4	
4 7 4 444 5 8 7 4	
	7
	,
•   7   1991   7	
1 2 2 111   Y Y   Y	
8 MM MM 8	
9 1 43 444 1	
10 7 7 444 A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A	
11   [ [ [ [ ] ] ] ]	
12 /5 /5/5   5/5/5   20 4 0 12   13 /5   5   5   5   5   5   5   5   5   5	
	•
14 3 +33 7	
15 2 7777	
18 July 129 Y	
י א מולון ליניף וו	
18 44 777 7	I
19 4 44 7	1
20   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1	7

No. 1, A, col. III, = Aleph, col. I, a (Saqqārah), with a cursive change of the head to a curve; the position and the size of the letter make a connection with the forms in col. I, b, or col. II, improbable. — No. 2, ba, col. III, = Beth, col. I, a, b (Teima, Saqqārah), with a cursive curve for the angle at the right: the cursive forms of the Beth of the papyri, [23] col. II, b, c, are further developed than the Kharoṣṭhī signs. — No. 3, ga, col. III, = Gimel, derived from col. I. or a similar form (compare col. II, and Euting, TSA. 1, a), with a cursive loop on the right and a curve on the left; similar loops are common in later ligatures, see pl. I, 33, 35, 36, XII; 34, XIII; and they occur even in ja, pl. I, 12, XII. — No. 4, da, col. III, = Daleth, derived from a form like that in col. II, b, which, according to col. I, a, occurs already about

B. C. 600 on Assyrian weights. — No. 5, ha, col. III, = He, derived from a form like that in col. I, a (Teima), with the transposition of the pendant in the middle of the curve to the right end of the foot in order to facilitate the insertion of i, e and o (see preliminary remarks, 2, page 20 f, above, and below under No. 17). — No. 6, va, col. III, = Waw, col. I (Teima, Saqqārah); the papyri in col. II. show more advanced forms.

No. 7, ja, col. III, a. = Zain, derived from a form like those in col. I, a, b (Teima), the left corner being turned upwards still further, whence the usual Kharoṣṭhī letter in col. III. is derived by omitting the stroke at the foot; the papyri, col. II, show more advanced forms unsuitable for comparison. — No. 8,  $\delta a$ , col. III, = Cheth, col. I (Teima), the sound of the Indian  $\delta a$  being very similar to a palatal  $\chi a$ , as in the German ich. — No. 9, ya, col. III, = Yod, derived either from a form like col. I, b, or directly from one like col. I, a (Assyrian weights), with the omission of the bar on the right (see preliminary remarks, 1); analogous forms occurring in later Palmyranian and Pahlavi (E.TSA. cols. 21-25, 30-32, 35-39, 58). — No. 10, ka, col. III, = Kaph, derived by a turn from right to left from col. I, b (Assyrian weights, Babylonian seals, &c.), and with the addition of a top-stroke, in order to distinguish the new sign from la (No. 11, col. III) and from pa (No. 15, col. III); the signs of the papyri, col. II, differ entirely. — No. 11, la, col. III, = Lamed, a form like those in col. I, a, c (Teima) being turned topsy-turvy owing to the aversion to signs with appendages at the foot alone (preliminary remarks, 1), and the curved line being broken and attached lower in order to distinguish the new letter from A.

No. 12, ma, col. III, a, b, = Mem, derived from a form like that in col. I, a, b (Saqq $\bar{a}$ rah) with a curved head, by the omission of the transverse line and a rudimentary indication of the vertical standing originally on the right, whence comes the semicircular ordinary ma of the Aśoka edicts, col. III, c, still more mutilated on account of the vowel-signs; the forms of the Mem of the papyri, col. II, are unsuited to be considered the prototypes of the Kharosthī ma. - No. 13, na, col. III, a, = Nun, col. I, a, b (Saqqārah), a later derivative being the na of col. III, b; the Nun of the papyri, col. II, is again unsuited for comparison. - No. 14, sa, col. III, = Samekh, col. I (Teima), with transposition of the slanting bar to the left end of the top-stroke from which it hangs down, and with connection of its lower end with the tail of the sign, which has been pushed forward towards the left (see the figures in B.IS. III2, 105); analogous developments appear in Nabataean (E.TSA. cols. 46, 47) and in Hebrew. — No. 15, pa, col. III,  $a_1 = Phe$ , col. I (Teima), turned from right to left to distinguish it from A; in the more usual pa of col. III, b, the curve has been pushed lower down. — No. 16, ca, col. III, = Tsade, derived from an acute-angled form like col. I, a, b (Terma), with the omission of the second hook on the right (see preliminary remarks, 2) and with the development of a hook below the head, because the vertical was made separately; the analogous Isade of col. II, b, has been developed, because the right stroke of the head was made separately and drawn to the vertical.

No. 17, kha, col. III, = Qoph, derived from a form like col. I, a, b (Serapeum) with the conversion of the central pendant into an elongation of the top-stroke on the left; similarly, the pendant has been transferred to the right end of the letter in the Teima form (E.TSA. col. 10). — No. 18, ra, col. III, = Resh, col. I, a, b (Saqqārah), with complete removal of the angular protuberance on the right. — No. 19, sa, col. III, = Shin, col. I (Teima), turned topsy-turvy owing to the aversion to tops with more than two strokes rising upwards (preliminary remarks, 2), and with a lengthening of the central stroke owing to the predilection for long-tailed signs. — No. 20, ta, col. III, = Taw, derived from a form like that in col. I, a (Assyrian weights) or in col. I, b (Saqqārah), with the transposition of the bar to the top of the [24] vertical, as in col. II, a, the new sign at the same time being turned from right to left in order to avoid the resemblance to pa (No. 15), and being broadened in order to distinguish it

from va and ra (Nos. 6, 18); the older form and the intermediate steps appear in tha (No. 20, col. IV, a) and ta (No. 20, col. IV, b) where the original Taw has been preserved, and in ta (No. 20, col. IV, c) where the bar stands at the top; compare below, B, 1, c, and B. 2.

## B. - Derivative signs.

- (1) Aspiration. The aspiration is expressed by the addition of a curve or a hook, which probably represent a cursive ha (TAYLOR), and for which cursively a simple stroke appears; at the same time, the original mātrkā is sometimes simplified. — (a) A curve or a hook is added to the right of the vertical of ga in gha, No. 3, col. IV, to the top of da in dha, No. 4. col. IV, u, and to the end of the second bar of ta, No. 20, col. IV, c, from which it rises upwards, in tha, No. 20, col. IV, d (properly tho). — (b) A hook, a curve, or cursively a slanting stroke, appears to the right of ba in bha, No. 2, col. IV, a, b, the head of ba being converted at the same time into a straight line and pushed somewhat more to the left, in order to avoid the identity with ka, No. 10, col. III. — (c) In the following aspirates appear only cursive straight strokes, added on the left in jha, No. 7, col. IV, and pha, No. 15, col. IV, and on the right in cha, No. 16, col. IV, dha, No. 4, col. IV, c, and tha, No. 20, col. IV, a, all of which letters show, however, additional peculiarities. In cha, the little pendant on the left of ca has been made horizontal and combined with the stroke of aspiration to a cross bar. In dha, the head of da has been flattened into a straight line. Tha has been formed out of the ancient Aramaic Taw. No. 20, col. I, a, turned from right to left. and the stroke of aspiration continues the bar of Taw towards the right.
- (2) Linguals. Ta has been formed out of the older Taw, turned from the right to the left, by the addition of a short bar, which in the Aśoka edicts usually stands on the right and lower than that on the left, as in No. 20, col. IV, b. In col. IV, c, the sign of lingualisation stands on the left, below the ta with the bar at the top. This form of ta, which appears rarely in the Aśoka edicts, must formerly have been common, as the tha has been derived from it (see above, B, I, a). The da of No. 4, col. IV, b, exactly resembles the common Aramaic Daleth in col. I, b (Teima) and may be identical with it. If the alphabet imported into India contained two forms for da (col. I, a, b), both may have been borrowed, and the more cumbrous one may have been used for the expression of the fuller sound. It is, however, also possible that the da has been formed out of the da of No. 4, col. III, a, by the addition of the bar of lingualisation, placed vertically on the right. The na, No. 13, col. IV, a, is likewise derived from na, col. III, a, b, by the addition of a straight stroke going downwards; compare what has been said above, § 4, B, 4, regarding the use of a short stroke for denoting the change of the quality of a borrowed or derivative sign in forming the AI, O, na, na and na of the Brāhmi.
- (3) The palatal  $\tilde{n}a$ , No. 13, col. IV, b, c, consists of two na (col. III, a) joined together (E. Thomas), and illustrates the modern Indian name for  $\tilde{n}a$  and na, which the Pandits often call the big nakaras. The sign, which is really not necessary for a clerk's alphabet, has perhaps been framed only because it existed in the Brāhmī, the Pandit's alphabet.
- (4) Medial vowels, absence of vowel in ligatures, and Anusvāra. Long vowels are not marked, and a inheres, just as in the Brāhmī, in every consonant. Other vowels are marked by straight strokes. In the case of i, the stroke passes through the left side of the top-line or top-lines of the consonant; in u, it stands to the left of the foot; in e, it descends on the left side of the top-line; in o, it hangs down from this line, see tho, No. 20, col. IV, d; for further details see below, § 11, B. Joined to A, the same strokes form I, U, E and O (No. 1, col. IV, a-d). The absence of a vowel between two dissimilar consonants, except massle, is expressed, as in the Brāhmī, by the combination of the two signs into a ligature, in which the second letter is usually connected with the lower end of the first. But ra stands invariably at the foot

of the other consonant, whether it may have to be pronounced before or after it. Double [25] consonants, except nasals, are expressed by single ones, and non-aspirates and aspirates by the aspirates alone. Nasals immediately preceding other consonants, are always expressed by the Anusvāra, which, in the Asoka edicts, is attached to the preceding mātṛkā.

The non-expression of a, and the rules regarding the formation of the ligatures, no doubt, have been taken over from the Brāhmī, only minor modifications being introduced. And it seems probable that the use of straight strokes for i, u, e and o comes from the same source. For, already in the Brāhmī of all the Aśoka edicts, u, e and o are either regularly or occasionally expressed by simple strokes, and in Girnār i is represented by a shallow curve, often hardly distinguishable from a straight stroke; moreover, i, e and o stand in Brāhmī, just as in the Kharoṣṭhī, at the top of the consonants, and u at the foot. A connection of the two systems of medial vowel-signs is therefore undeniable, and that of the Brāhmī must be regarded as the original one, since its signs, as has been shown above, § 4, C, 1, evidently have been derived from the initial vowels.

The notation of I, U, E and O by combinations of A with the medial vowel-signs is peculiar to the Kharoṣṭhī, and is attributable to a desire to simplify the alphabet. Among the later Indian alphabets, the modern Devanāgarī offers an analogy with its  $\tilde{M}$  and  $\tilde{M}$ , and the Gujarātī with its  $\tilde{M}$  E,  $\tilde{M}$  AI,  $\tilde{M}$  O, and  $\tilde{M}$  AU. Several among the foreign alphabets derived from the Brāhmī, as e. g. the Tibetan, show the principle of the Kharoṣṭhī fully developed.

The Anusvāra, which is used, as in the Brāhmī, for all vowelless nasals, is derived from ma (E. Thomas). In mam, No. 12, col. IV, it still has the full form of ma, but usually it undergoes cursive alterations; see below,  $\S$  11, B, 5.

# § 10. — The varieties of the Kharosthi of Plate I.1

According to plate I, the Kharoṣṭhī shows four chief varieties, viz.: — (1) the archaic one of the fourth and third centuries B. C., found in the Aśoka edicts of Shāhbāzgarhī (photolithograph of edict VII. in ZDMG. 43, 151, and of edict XII. in EI. 1, 16) and of Mansehra (photolithograph of edicts I—VIII. in JA. 1888, 2, 330, — Senart, Notes d'Épigraphie Indienne, 1), with which the signature in the Aśoka edicts of Siddāpura (photolithographs in EI. 3, 138—140), the legends on the oldest coins (autotypes in C.CAI. pl. 3, Nos. 9, 12, 13) and the syllables on the Persian sigloi (autotypes in J.RAS. 1895, 865) fully agree.

(2) The variety of the second and first centuries B. C. on the coins of the Indo-Grecian kings, which is imitated by some later foreign kings (autotypes in P. GAEDNER'S Catalogue of Indian Coins in the British Museum, pl. 4—21).

<sup>1</sup> Preparation of PLATE I: --

<sup>1—37,</sup> cols. I—V, and 38, 39, cols. I—XIII, traced by Dr. Dedekind from Dr. Burgess' impressions of the Asoka edicts of Shahbazgarhi and Mansehra, and reduced by photography.

<sup>1-37,</sup> cols. VI, VII, and 38, 39, col. XIV, drawn by DE. W. CARTELLIERI from P. GARDNER'S autotypes of Indo-Grecian coins.

<sup>1-37,</sup> cols. VIII, IX, and 22-25, col. XIII, traced from Dr. Burgess' impressions of the Mathurā lion capital and the photograph of the Taxila copper-plate of which a collectype has since then been published in EI. 4, 53 (10 and 14, col. VIII, and 25, col. XIII).

<sup>1—37,</sup> cols. X—XII, and 31—37, col. XIII, traced or drawn according to Dr. Hoeenle's facsimile of the Sue Bihār inscription, supplemented by some signs from the Manikyāla stone and gelatine copies of the Wardak and Bimāran vases by Dr. S. von Oldenburg.

<sup>23-30,</sup> col. XIII, drawn according to P. GARDNER's autotypes of the older Kusana coins.

<sup>1-20,</sup> cols. XIII, XIV, numerals drawn according to the impressions and facsimiles of the Asoka edicts and later inscriptions.

Older tables of the Kharosthi alphabet, in P.IA. 2, 166, pl. 11; W.AA. 262; C.IA(CII. 1), pl. 27; P. GAEDNEE, Cat. I. C. Br. Mus. p. LXX. f.; Von Sallet, Nachfolger Alex. d. Gr. (end); G. H. OZHA, The Ind. Pal. pl. 26.

- (3) The variety of the Saka period, first century B. C. to first century A. D. (?), on the Taxila copper-plate of Patika (lithograph in J.RAS. 1863, 222, pl. 3, and collotype in EI. 4, 56), and on the lion-capital of the satrap Soḍāsa or Suḍasa from Mathurā, which occurs also on some sculptures from Gandhāra (autotype in J.ASB. 58, 144, pl. 10; Anzeig. phil. hist. Cl. WA. 1896), on the Kaldawa stone (WZKM. 10, 55, 327) and on the coins of several Saka and Kuṣana kings (autotypes, P. Gardner, op. cit., pl. 22—25).
- (4) The strongly cursive script of the first and second centuries A. D. (?), which begins with the Takht-i-Bahi inscription of Gondopherres (autotype in JA. 1890, I, = S.NEI. 3, pl. 1, No. 1) and is fully developed in the inscriptions of the later Kuṣana kings Kaniṣka and Huviṣka (autotype of the Zeda inscription in JA. 1890, I, = S.NEI. 3, pl. 1, No. 3, of the Manikyāla stone, JA. 1896, I, = S.NEI. 6, pl. 1, 2, of the Suë Bihār inscription, IA. 10, 324, lithograph of the Wardak vase, J.RAS. 1863, 256, pl. 10), and occurs also in the MS. of the Dhammapada from Khotan; see above, § 7.

# § 11. — The archaic variety.<sup>2</sup> A. — The radical signs.

- (1) [26] A small stroke, rising upwards at an acute angle, may be added at the foot of every letter ending with a straight or slanting line, in order to mark its end (plate I, 1, II; 6, II, V; 7, II; 8, II; &c). If a letter ends with two slanting lines, like ya and a (34, II), the upstroke may be added to the left. In the Aśoka edicts of Mansehra, da receives instead occasionally a straight base-stroke (18, V).
- (2) Ca has three varieties, (a) head with obtuse angle (10, I, II, IV); (b) head with curve (10, V); (c) head with curve, connected by a vertical with the lower part (10, III). (3) The head of cha is likewise sometimes angular (11, I, IV) and sometimes round (11, II), and loses occasionally the cross-bar below the head, as in the later types. (4) The full form of ja occurs at least once in Shābhāzgarhī (12, I, V) and oftener in Mansehra, where once (edict V, I, 24) the bar stands to the left of the foot. The left side-stroke of ja is often curved (12, III). (5) In ña, the second shortened na (see above, § 9, B, 3) is sometimes added on the right (14, I, V) and sometimes on the left (14, III, IV). Occasionally, the right side of the letter is converted cursively into a vertical, as in the later inscriptions (14, IX).
- (6) The normal form of ta is that of 15, I, II; but the bar on the left stands occasionally lower than that on the right (15, V; 38, II), or both bars stand on the left (38, VI), or the bar on the right is omitted (commonly in Mansehra) (15, III).
- (7) Ta (20) is mostly shorter and broader than ra (31), and either its two lines are of equal length, or the vertical one is shorter. Forms like 20, V, are rare. (8) Di (22, II) shows twice, in Shābhāzgarhī edict IV, 1. 8, and Mansehra edict VII, 1. 33 (where the transcript in ZDMG. has erroneously dri), a curve to the right of the foot, which is probably nothing but an attempt to clearly distinguish da from na. (9) Dha with the left end turned upwards (23, V) is rare and a secondary development (see above, § 9, B, 1). In the abnormal dha of 38, VIII (dhra), from Mansehra, the second bar is a substitute for a very sharp bend to the left (23, V). (10) The na with the bent head (24, III) occurs not rarely in the syllable ne.

<sup>1</sup> Other facsimiles of Kharosthi inscriptions:—(1) Aśoka edicts in J.RAS. 1850, 153; C.IA(CII 1), pl. 1, 2; C.ASR. 5, pl 5; S.IP. 1 (end); IA. 10, 107;—(2) later inscriptions in PIA. 1, 95 (pl. 6), 144 (pl. 9), 162 (pl. 12); W.AA. 54 (pl. 2), 262, C.ASR. 2, 124 (pl. 59), 160 (pl. 63); 5, pl. 15, 28; J.RAS. 1863, 222 (pl. 3), 288 (pl. 4), 250 (pl. 9), 253 (pl. 10), and 1877, 144; J.ASB. 23, 57; 31, 176, 582; 39, 65, IA. 18, 257, S.NEI. Nos. 3 (JA. 1890, I, pl. 1, No. 2) and 5 (JA. 1894, II, pl. 5, Nos. 34, 36); all useless except the last three

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare ZDMG. 43, 128 ff., 274 ff.

- (11) The greatly mutilated ma (29, I) is more common than the forms with remnants of the old pendant (compare above, § 9, A, No. 12). It appears invariably in connection with vowel signs and owes its existence to such combinations.
- (12) La with a curve on the left, as in the later inscriptions (32, VIII), is rare in the Aśoka edicts, but occurs in Mansehra edict VI, 1. 29.
- (13) The cursively rounded  $\dot{s}a$  of 34, III, is rare; but once, in Shāhbāzgarhī edict XIII, l. l, appears a  $\dot{s}a$  hardly distinguishable from ya.—(14) The sa with a triangular head (36, II), and that with a rounded head (36, I, III, IV), are cursive developments from the old polygonal form (36, V). The vertical stroke of sa is occasionally omitted, as in Mansehra [27] edict VI, l. 27.
- (15) The common forms of ha with a curve (37, I, IV) or a short hook (37, III, V) at the foot, are cursive developments of the ha of 37, II; see above, § 9, A, No. 5.

## B. — Medial vowels and Anusvara.

- (1) The *i*-stroke goes regularly across the left side of the horizontal strokes of the consonants (6, III; 7, III; 15, II, III; &c.); in letters with two horizontal or slanting top-strokes, it passes through both (14, III; 16, III; 38, III, VI; &c.), likewise through both the top-strokes of na (19, X). In I(2, I), di (22, II), and ni, it stands just below the head, and in yi (30, II) it hangs in the left side.
- (2) The e-stroke corresponds in form and position to the upper half of the i-stroke (4, I; 6, IV; 12, II; 19, III; &c.); in E (4, II) it may also stand straight above the head of A.
- (3) The o-stroke mostly corresponds in its position to the lower half of the i-stroke (5, I; 12, IV; 14, IV; &c.), but it stands further to the right in the angle, formed by the upper part of the letters, in go, gho (9, II) and so (36, IV).
- (4) The u-stroke stands regularly at the left lower end of the consonant (3, I; 8, III; 10, IV; 12, III; &c.), but a little higher up if the foot of the consonant is curved to the left (U, 3, II), or to the right (du, 22, IV), or has a hook on the right (pru, 25, V; hu, 37, IV). In mu it stands to the left of the top of ma (see mru, 29, V).
- (5) The Anusvāra has the full form of ma (see above, § 9, B, 4) only occasionally in mam (29, IV). More commonly it is represented cursively by a straight stroke as in mam (38, XI), or by two hooks at the sides of ma as in mam (38, X). In combination with other consonants ending in a single slanting or vertical line, the Anusvāra is marked by an angle, opening upwards, which the foot of the consonant bisects (8, IV; 11, IV; 17, V; 19, V; &c.), or, rarely in Shāhbāzgarhī, oftener in Mansehra, by a straight line, a substitute for the curve of ma, as in tham (21, V). If the foot of the consonant has some other appendage, the Anusvāra is attached higher up to the vertical, as in nam (14, V); dam (18, V); vram (33, V); ham (37, V). The angular Anusvāra is always divided in yam (30, V) and in sam, and the one half is added to the right end of the matrka, and the other to the left. This may also be done in kam and in bham (28, IV).

## C. — Ligatures.

- (1) Bhys (38, IX), mma (38, XII) and mys (38, XII, b) show no changes or only very slight ones in the combined letters. In other cases, one or the other is usually mutilated.
- (2) For ra, which must be pronounced sometimes before and sometimes after its  $m\bar{a}t!k\bar{a}$ . (exception in rta in Mansehra edict V, l. 24), appears, besides slightly mutilated forms (in rti, 38, IV, and rva, 39, I), (a) a slanting line, with or without a bend, which goes through the middle of the vertical of the combined consonant (as in gra, 38, I; rta, 38, II; rti, 38, III); (b) also a curved or straight stroke at the foot of the combined sign (rti, 38, V; tra, 6, V; tra, 20, V; tra, 20, V; tra, 23, V; 38, VIII; tra, 25, V; tra, 27, V; tra, 33, V; tra, 34, V; tra, 39,

- VIII, IX). In combination with ma, the ra-stroke stands invariably at the right top, as in mru (29, V), and in kra and bhra (28, V), occasionally at the right end of the hooks of those letters. Sometimes, especially in Mansehra, a curve open above, as in thra (21, IV), is substituted for the straight stroke. The stroke and the curves, of course, are cursive substitutes for a full ra, attached to the foot of the combined consonants.
- (3) In vru (39, II) the two consonants have been pushed the one into the other, so that the vertical does duty both for the va and the ra. The same principle is followed in the formation of the ligature sta (which consists only in Shāhbāzgarhī ediet I, 1. 2, srestamati, of sa with a ta hooked into the vertical, 39, IV). At the same time sa is mutilated, the middle of its top remaining open and the hook on the left being omitted. This is clearly visible in sti (39, V) and strī (39, IX), while sta (39, III), sti (39, VI), stu (39, VII), and strī (39, VIII) are made more negligently. The ligature of sa and pa is formed according to [28] the same principles, but the sa is mutilated still more and merely indicated by a little hook at the top of the vertical of pa in spa (39, X) and spi (39, XII). In spa (39, XI) the hook stands on the side-limb of pa.
- (4) The ligature in 38, VII, seems to have two different meanings. In Shāhbāzgarhī edict X, 1. 21, the sign appears in the representative of the Sanskrit tadātvāya, which in the dialect of the Aśoka edicts might be either tadatvaye or tadattaye, and in Mansehra it occurs frequently in the representative of the Sanskrit ātman. As the Kuṣana inscriptions offer a similar sign (31, XIII) in the representative of the Sanskrit satvānām, we have probably to read tva in Shāhbāzgarhī edict X, 1. 21, and to assume that the curve at the foot of ta represents a va, just as it stands in thra (21, IV) for the similar ra. This explanation is confirmed by the ligatures 30, XIII, and 37, XIII, which most probably are equivalent to śva (iśvara) and sva (visharasvamini). In Mansehra (especially edict XII) the sign 38, VII, has to be read tma.<sup>2</sup>

# § 12. — Changes in the later varieties.<sup>3</sup> A. — The radical signs.

- (1) The meaningless upward stroke connected with the foot of the verticals occurs only occasionally on the Indo-Grecian coins (7, VI; 20, VI; 36, VI). More frequently it appears detached to the left of the signs, as in A (1, VI), and even with ha (37, VI). A cursive substitute is the very common dot, as in ha (37, VII); compare also ma (29, VII). Finally, various letters, like ta (20, VII) and na (24, VII), receive on the Indo-Grecian coins a horizontal base-line (see above, § 11, A, 1). In the variety of the Saka period, the ends of the verticals show sometimes a meaningless hook, as in ca (10, VIII) and in sa (36, IX), or a straight stroke on the right, as in si (35, VIII). The same hook appears also in the cursive script of the Kusana period (sa, 35, X), or a horizontal stroke to the left, as in A (1, XI), ha (6, X), dha (23, XI), na (24, XII), bi (27, XI), ya (30, X), as well as curves both to the right and left, as in kha (7, X), ca (10, XII), dhi (16, XI), ghi (9, X), ba (27, X), mi (29, XI), where the curve has been added to the vowel-stroke.
- (2) In the Saka and Kusana varieties, the head of ka is commonly converted into a curve (6, VIII), and in the Kusana variety this curve is connected with the side-limb of ka

O. Franke, Nachr. Gott. Ges. d. Wiss., 1895, 540, and ZDMG. 50, 603, proposes to read fa and fi for the signs which I read spa and spi.

The MS. of the Dhammapada shows this same sign both in the terminations of the absolutives in tva (tva) and in atma (atman), and thus further confirms the explanation proposed.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Regarding the characters on the Indo-Grecian coins, see WZKM. 8, 193 f.; regarding the script of the Saka and Kusana inscriptions, see J.RAS. 1863, 238, pl. 4 (where, however, in l. 1 the second ch must be deleted, in l. 2 sa must be substituted for si, and that for tt, and in l. 3 rya for rs, and the signs for sy in l. 4 are doubtful), and O. Franke, ZDMG. 50, 602 ff.

# § 14. — Common characteristics of the ancient inscriptions.

The forms of the Brāhmī and Drāvidī, used during the first 600 years, are known at present only from inscriptions on stones, copper-plates, coins, seals and rings,¹ and there is only one instance of the use of ink from the third or second century B. C.² The view of the development of the characters during this period is, therefore, not complete. For, in accordance with the results of all paleographic research, the epigraphic alphabets are mostly more archaic than those used in daily life, as the very natural desire to employ monumental forms prevents the adoption of modern letters, and as, in the case of coins, the imitation of older specimens not rarely makes the alphabet retrograde. The occurrence of numerous cursive forms together with very archaic ones, both in the Aśoka edicts (see above, § 3) and also in later inscriptions, clearly proves³ that Indian writing makes no exception to the general rule. And it will be possible to use the numerous cursive letters for the reconstruction of the more advanced alphabets, which were employed for manuscripts and for business purposes.

The full recognition of the actual condition of the Indian writing is obscured also by the fact that the inscriptions of the earliest period, with two exceptions, are either in Prākrit or in a mixed language (Gāthā dialect), and that the originals, from which they were transferred to stone or copper, were drafted by clerks and monks who possessed little or no education. In [31] writing Prakrit these persons adopted nearly throughout — (in writing the mixed dialect less constantly) — the practically convenient popular orthography, in which the notation of long vowels, especially of  $\bar{\imath}$  and  $\bar{u}$ , and of the Anusvāra, is occasionally neglected as a matter of small importance, and in which double consonants are mostly represented by single ones, non-aspirates are omitted before aspirates, and the Anusvāra is put for all vowelless medial nasals.4 This mode of spelling continues in the Prakrit inscriptions with great constancy until the second century A. D. The constant doubling of the consonants appears first in a Pāli inscription of Haritiputta Satakanni, king of Banavasi, which has been recently found by L. Rice.5 The longer known inscription of the same prince (IA. 14, 331) does not show it. find in some other, partly much older, Prākrit documents, faint traces of the phonetical and grammatical spelling of the Pandits. Thus, the Asoka edicts of Shāhbāzgarhī offer some instances of mma (see above, § 9, B, 4), the Nāsik inscriptions Nos. 14, 15, and Kuḍā No. 5, have the word siddha, and Kanheri No. 14 āyyakena.6 Such deviations from the rule indicate that the writers had learned a little Sanskrit, which fact is proved also for the writer who drafted the Kālsī edicts by the, for the Pāli absurd, form bamhmane for bambhane (Kālsī edict XIII, 1. 39).

With the exception of the Ghasundī (Nagarī) inscription, which contains no word with a double consonant, all the documents in the mixed dialect offer instances of double consonants which sometimes even are not absolutely necessary. Pabhosa No. 1 has Bahasatimittrasa and Kaśśapīyānam, No. 2 has Tevaṇīputtrasya, Nāsik No. 5 has siddham, and Kārle No. 21 has Setapharaṇaputtasya. And the Jaina inscriptions from Mathurā furnish numerous analogous cases. The only known Sanskrit inscriptions of this period, the Girnār Praśasti from the reign of Rudradāman and Kaṇheri No. 11, in general show the orthography approved by the phonologists and grammarians, with a few irregularities in the use of the Anusvāra, e. g., pratāmaṃ ā (Girnār Praśasti, l. 2), saṃbaṃdhā (l. 12), which have been caused by the influence of the popular orthography, but are found in the best MSS. written by Pandits. The orthographic pecularities, just discussed, have therefore nothing to do with the development of the alphabet, but merely show that in ancient, as in modern, India the spelling of the clerks differed from that of the learned Brahmans, and that both methods, then as now, mutually influenced each other and caused irregularities.

<sup>1</sup> J.BBRAS. 10, XXIII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See above, § 2, B (end).

<sup>3</sup> B.IS. III2, 40-43,

<sup>4</sup> See above, § 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> According to an impression and a photograp kindly sent by Mr. L. RICE.

<sup>6</sup> B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 45 and 52; 5, pl. 51.

<sup>7</sup> EI. 2, 242; B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 52 and 54.

<sup>\*</sup> EI. 1, 371 ff.; 2, 195 ff.

<sup>9</sup> B.ASRWI. 2, pl. 14; 5, pl. 51.

A second peculiarity, found in many inscriptions in Prakrit and in the mixed dialect. is the frequent erroneous employment of the signs for the sibilants. In the Aśoka edicts of Kālsī, of Siddāpura, and of Bairāt No. II,2 on the Bhattiprolu vases, in the cave inscriptions of Nagarjuni and of Ramnath,3 and in the Mathura inscriptions of the Kusana period, nay even in the two oldest Ceylonese inscriptions, sa or sa are used often for sa, and sa for sa, and sa for sa and sa. The reasons for this promiseuous use of the sibilants are, first, the circumstance that the school alphabet, which the clerks learned, was originally intended for Sanskrit and contained more sibilants than the ancient vernaculars possessed, and secondly, the negligent pronunciation of the classes destitute of grammatical training. The western and southern Präkrits very probably possessed, then as now, both the palatal and the dental sibilants, and it was probably the custom, as is done also in our days, to exchange the two sounds in the same words. The natural consequence was that the feeling for the real value of the signs for sa and sa disappeared among the Prākrit-speaking classes, while the sa of their school-alphabet, for which there was no corresponding sound in their vernaculars, must have appealed to them as a sign suitable to express sibilance. The Sanskrit inscriptions of all centuries, especially the land-grants which were drafted by common clerks, the MSS. of works written in the modern Prākrits, and the documents from [32] the offices of modern India, with their countless mistakes in the use of the sibilants, offer abundant proof for the correctness of this explanation of the errors in the old inscriptions. The explanation is also confirmed by the occasional occurrence of na4 for na, once in the separate edicts of Dhauli and once of Jaugada, - though na alone is permissible for their dialect. In these cases, too, the error seems to have been caused by the fact that the school alphabet contained both na and na. The clerks, who had learned it, each made once a slip, and put in the, for them, redundant sign. The different opinion,5 according to which the exchange of the sibilants in the Asoka edicts indicates that the values of the Brāhma signs were not completely settled in the third century B. C., rests on the, now untenable, assumption that the Brāhmī was elaborated, not for writing Sanskrit, but for the Prākrit dialects.

# § 15. — The varieties of the Brāhmī and Drāvidī in Plates II. and III.6

Plates II. and III. show the following fifteen scripts of the first period: —

(1) The variety of the Eran coin, running from the right to the left (pl. II, col. I), which probably dates from the 4th century B. C.

6 Preparation of the Plates :-

#### PLATE II.

Col. I; drawn according to a caste of the Eran coin; compare C.CAI. pl. 11, No. 18: A from Patna seal, C.ASR. 15, pl. 2.

Cols. II, III; cuttings from facsimile of Kālsī, EI. 2, 447 ff.

Cols. IV, V; cuttings from facsimile of Delhi-Sivalik, IA. 13, 306 ff.

Cols. VI, VII; cuttings from facsimiles of Jaugada, B.ASESI. 1, pl. 67, 68, 69 · 20, VI, from Radhia, EI. 2, 245 ff.; and 44, VII, drawn according to impression of Sahasrām.

Cols. VIII—X; cuttings from facsimiles of Gırnar, EL 2, 447 ff.: 34, ra, between VII, VIII, from Rūpnath, IA. 6, 156.

Cols. XI, XII; cuttings from facsimiles of Siddāpura, EI. 3, 134 ff.: 44, XII, drawn according to impression of Bairāt, No. I; 45, XI, according to facsimile of Bharahut, ZDMG. 40, 58 ff.

Cols. XIII—XV; cuttings from facsimiles in EI. 2, 323 ff.

Col. XVI; traced from the facsimile in J.ASB. 56, 77, pl. 5 a.

Col. XVII; cuttings from facsimile in IA. 20, 361 ff.

Col. XVIII; traced from the facsimile in IA. 14,189: 6 from facsimile of Bharahut, No. 98, ZDMG. 40, 58: and 41 from impression of Sanci Stupa I, No. 199.

Col. XIX; cuttings from facsimile in EI. 2, 240 ff.

Col. XX; cuttings from facsimiles in EI. 1, 396, No. 33, and EI. 2, 195, No. 1.

Cols. XXII; drawn according to Cunningham's photograph of the Hathigumpha inscription of Kharavela.

Cols. XXIII, XXIV; cuttings from facsimiles in B.ASRWI. 5, pl. 51, Nos. 1, 2.

### PLATE III.

Cols. I, II; enttings from facsimiles in EI. 2, 199, Nos. 2 and 5, and CUNNINGHAM's photograph of the ora well inscription: compare C.ASE. 20, pl. 5, No. 4. — (Note continued on the next page.)

- (2) The older Maurya alphabet of the Aśoka edicts¹ (pl. II, cols. II—XII), which occurs also with local variations on the Persian sigloi² and the old coins from Taxila, &c.,³ in the majority of the inscriptions on the Bharahut Stūpa (pl. II, 6, XVIII; 45, XI), in Gayā,⁴ Sānci,⁵ and Parkham,⁶ on the Patnā seals, on the Sohgaura copper-plate,ⁿ and on the stone of Ghasundi or Nagarī (pl. II, col. XVI), and probably prevailed at least in the latter half of the 4th and in the 3rd century B. C.
- (3) The Drāvidī of Bhattiprolu (pl. II, cols. XIII—XV), which is connected with the southern variety of the Maurya type, but includes many very archaic signs; about B. C. 200.
- (4) The later Maurya alphabet of Daśaratha's inscription (pl. II, col. XVII), closely related to the characters on the coins of the Indo-Grecian kings Agathocles and Pantaleon; about B. C. 200 to 180.
- (5) The Suiga alphabet of the Torana of Bharahut (pl. II, col. XVIII), which agrees with that of the Pabhosa inscriptions (pl. II, col. XIX), of the later votive inscriptions on the rails of the Bharahut and Sāñci Stūpas,<sup>9</sup> of the oldest Mathurā inscriptions<sup>10</sup> (pl. II, col. XX), of the Riwā inscription,<sup>11</sup> and so forth;<sup>12</sup> 2nd to 1st centuries B. C.
- (6) The older Kalinga alphabet of the Katak (Hāthigumphā) caves (pl. II, cols. XXI, XXII); about B. C. 150.
- (7) The archaic alphabet of the western Dekhan in the Nānāghāṭ inscription (pl. II, cols. XXIII, XXIV), which is found also in Nāsik No. 1, in Pitalkhorā, and in Ajanṭā Nos. 1, 2;<sup>13</sup> from about B. C. 150 to the 1st century A. D.
- (8, 9) The precursors of the later northern alphabets, the alphabet of the inscriptions of the Northern Kṣatrapa Sodāsa and of the archaic votive inscriptions from Matharā (pl. III, cols. I, II), 1st century B. C. to 1st century A. D. (?), and the Kuṣana alphabet of the reigns of Kaniṣka, Huviṣka and Vāsudeva (pl. III, cols. III—V), 1st and 2nd (?) centuries A. D.
- (10—15) The precursors of the later southern alphabets, the alphabet of Kāthiāvāḍ from the time of the Western Kṣatrapa Rudradāman (pl. III, col. VI), about A. D. 150; the archaistic type of the western Dekhan from the time of the Kṣatrapa Nahapāna (pl. III, col. VII), beginning of the 2nd century A. D. (?); the more modern-looking alphabet of the same district (occasionally with only faint traces of southern peculiarities) from the time of Nahapāna (pl. III, cols. VIII, IX), of the Andhra king Gotamīputa Sātakani (col. X), of the Andhra king Puļumāyi (col. XI), of the Andhra king Gotamīputa Sātakani (col. XII), of Nāsik No. 20 (col. XIII), and of the Ābhīra king Īśvarasena (col. XIV), 2nd century A. D.;

Cols. III-V; cuttings from facsimiles of dated Kuşana inscriptions in El. 1, 371 ff., and 2, 195 ff.

Col. VI; drawn according to facsimile in B.ASRWI. 2, 128, pl. 14.

Cols. VII—XVI; cuttings from facsimiles in B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 51, No. 19; pl. 52, Nos. 5, 9, 10, 18, 19; pl. 58, Nos. 13, 14; pl. 55, No. 22; pl. 48, No. 3; and tracings for col. XV, from pl. 45, Nos. 5, 6, 11.

Cols. XVII, XVIII; cuttings from facsimiles in BASRSI. 1, pl. 62, 63.

Cols. XIX, XX; cuttings from facsimile in El. 1, 1 ff.

The backgrounds of all the outtings, and indistinct strokes, have been touched up.

Scale of Plate II. = 0.5 of the cuttings; except 13, II, and the signs in cols. VI, VII, XXIII, XXIV, which have the same size as in the facsimiles. Scale of Plate III. = 0.7.

Ompare the following trustworthy facsimiles of Aśoka edicts not mentioned in note 6 on page 31 above: — B.ASRWI. 2, 98 ff., Girnār; IA. 13, 306 ff., Allahabad; IA. 19, 122 ff., Delhi-Mirat, Allahabad Queen's edict, Allahabad Kosambi edict; IA. 20, 334, Barābar'caves; IA. 22, 299, Sahasrām and Rūpnāth; EI. 2, 245 ff., Mathia and Rāmpūrvā; EI 2, 366, Sāńci; JA. 1887, I, 498, Bairāt No. I; and the table of letters in B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 5.

<sup>2</sup> J.BAS. 1895, 865 (pl.). <sup>2</sup> C.CAI. pl. 2, 3; pl. 8, No. 1; pl. 10, No. 20.

<sup>4</sup> C.MG. pl. 10, Nos. 2, 3. <sup>5</sup> Facsimiles in EI. 2, 366 ff. <sup>6</sup> C.ASR. 20, pl. 6.

7 Proc. ASB. May-June, 1894, pl. 1. S. P. GARDNER, Cat. of Ind. Coins Br. Mus., pls. 3, 4.

Pl. in ZDMG. 40, 58 ff.; EI. 2, 366 (facsimiles of Stupa I, Nos. 288, 377, 378).

10 Compare plate in Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 142.
11 IA. 9, 121.

<sup>12</sup> Compare also C.CAI. pl. 4, Nos. 8—15; pl. 5; pl. 8, No. 2 ff.; pl. 9, Nos. 1—5; C.MG. pl. 10, No. 4; B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 44, Bhājā, Nos. 1—6, Kondāņe.

18 B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 44, Pitalkhorā, Nos. 1-7; pl. 51, Nāsik, No. 1.

the ornamental variety of the same district with more fully developed southern peculiarities, from the Kuḍā and [33] Junnar inscriptions (cels. XV, XVI), 2nd century A. D.; the highly ornamental variety of the eastern Dekhan from Jaggayyapeta (cels. XVII, XVIII), 3rd century A. D. (?); and the ancient cursive alphabet of the Prākrit grant of the Pallava king Sivaskandavarman (cels. XIX, XX), 4th century A. D. (?).

# § 16. - The older Maurya alphabet; Plate II.

# A. - Geographical extension and duration of use.1

The older Maurya alphabet was used over the whole of India, and it seems to have found its way into Ceylon at the latest about B. C. 250. For, the two oldest Ceylonese inscriptions,<sup>2</sup> from the time of the king Abaya Gāmini, which probably belong to the end of the 2nd or the beginning of the 1st century B. C., show characters which appear to have been developed from those of the Aśoka edicts. And the close relations between Aśoka and Tissa of Ceylon, reported by the Southern Buddhists, make an importation of the Brāhmī from Magadha into Ceylon not improbable. It is, however, possible that the Brāhmī alphabet was introduced even earlier into Ceylon by Indian colonists.<sup>3</sup>

The upper limit of the use of the older Maurya alphabet cannot be fixed with any certainty. But the shape of some of the characters on the Persian sigloi (above § 15, 1) makes it probable that even its more advanced forms existed before the end of the Akhaemenian rule in India (B. C. 331). Its oldest primary forms, no doubt, go back to much earlier times, as also the statements of the tradition, discussed above, tend to show. [34] The lower limit of the use of this type cannot be very distant from the end of Aśoka's reign (about B. C. 221), and must fall about B. C. 200. This estimate is supported by the character of the writing in the inscriptions of Asoka's grandson Dasaratha, which were incised "immediately after his coronation" (anamtaliyam abhisitena), i. e., probably just about the end of the 3rd century B. C., and of the legends on the coins of the Indo-Grecian kings Pantaleon and Agathocles, who ruled in the beginning of the 2nd century B. C.5 The letters of the Nagarjuni cave inscriptions (pl. II. col. XVII) are sharply distinguished from those of the Asoka edicts, partly by the far advanced forms of ja, ta, da, la, and partly by the invariable and considerable reduction of the vertical strokes. The second peculiarity re-occurs on the coins of the two Indo-Grecian kings, which show also a further development of the northern ja of pl. II, 15, III. Though the shortened letters were by no means unknown to the writers of the Asoka edicts (see table on p. 7), their constant use for epigraphic documents is, to judge from the available materials, a characteristic of the types of the second and subsequent centuries. And I believe that all inscriptions showing long verticals must be assigned to the third century B. C., and those with short ones to later times.

## B. - Local varieties.

The peculiar circumstances, under which the Aśoka edicts were incised, were most unfavourable to a full expression of the existing local varieties. First, the fact that all of them were first drawn up in the imperial secretariate at Pāṭaliputra and then forwarded to the governors of the provinces, must have proved a serious obstacle. As the differences in the grammatical forms and small alterations in the text indicate, the edicts were copied by the provincial clerks before they came into the hands of the stone-masons. It is a matter of course that the scribes of the Rājukas, in copying them, were influenced by the forms of the letters in the originals, and that they imitated them, be it involuntarily or out of respect for the head office. Further, it is probable that the provincial clerks were not always natives of those districts in which they

<sup>1</sup> Compare B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 49 ff.
2 E. MÜLLER, Anc. Insers. from Ceylon, pl. 1.
5 Compare M. DE ZILVA WICKRAMASINGHE in J.RAS., 1895, 895 ff.
4 L.IA. II<sup>2</sup>, 257 ff.

<sup>5</sup> Von Sallet, Nachfolger Alex. d. Gr., 31; P. GARDNER, Cat. of Ind. Coins Br. Mus., XXVI.

served; and this circumstance must have contributed to efface or to modify the use of the local varieties. Most of Aśoka's governors will, no doubt, have been sent from Magadha, the home of the Maurya race, and many will have been transferred in the course of their service from one province to another. Those acquainted with the conditions of the Civil Service in the Native States of India, which still preserve the ancient forms common to the whole of Asia, will regard it as probable that the governors, on taking charge of their posts, imported their subordinates, or at least some of them, be it from their native country or from the districts which they formerly governed. The case of Pada, the writer of the Siddāpura edicts, confirms this inference. As he knew the Kharoṣṭhī, he probably had immigrated, or been transferred, to Maisūr from the north of India.

In spite of these unfavourable conditions it is possible to distinguish in the writing of the Aśoka edicts at least two, perhaps three, local varieties. First, there is a northern and a southern one, for which, as in the case of the later alphabets, the Vindhya or, as the Hindus say, the Narmadā, forms the dividing line. The southern variety is most strongly expressed in the Gırnār and Siddāpura edicts, less clearly in the Dhauli and Jaugada edicts, by differences in the signs for A, A, kha, ja, ma, ra, sa, the medial i, and the ligatures with ra (see below, under C, D). A comparison of the characters of the most closely allied northern and southern inscriptions confirms the assumption that the differences are not accidental. If the characters of the Siddāpura edicts do not always agree with those of Girnār, [35] the discrepancies will have to be ascribed to the northern descent of the writer Paḍa or to his service in a northern office.

Even the writing in the northern versions is not quite homogeneous. The pillar edicts of Allahabad, Mathia, Niglīva, Paḍeria, Radhia, and Rāmpūrvā, form one very closely connected set, in which only occasionally minute differences can be traced, and the edicts of Bairāt No. I., Sahasrām, Barābar, and Sāñci, do not much differ. A little further off stand the Dhauli separate edicts (where edict VII. has been written by a different hand from the rest), the Delhi-Mirat edicts, and the Allahabad Queen's edict, as these show the angular da. Very peculiar and altogether different is the writing of the rock edicts of Kālsī, with which some letters on the coins of Agathocles and Pantaleon (but also some in the Jaugada separate edicts) agree. Perhaps it is possible to speak also of a north-western variety of the older Maurya alphabet.

## C. — The radical signs or Matrkas.

Signs beginning with verticals show already in the Asoka edicts occasionally a thickening or a very short stroke (*Serif*) at the upper end, as in *cha* (pl. II, 14, II), *pa* (28, VII); compare the cases noted EI. 2, 448, and B.ASRSI. 1, 115.

- $(1, 2)^2$  In addition to the eight forms of A,  $\overline{A}$ , given on page 6 above, the plate shows a ninth in col. XI. with an open square at the top (compare ma, 32, XI, XII); a tenth, with the angle separated from the vertical, occurs in No. 1 of the Siddāpura inscriptions, edict I, line 2, 3. The forms with the bent vertical (cols. VII, XI) have been caused by writing the upper and lower halves of the letter separately. The addition of the stroke, marking the length of the vowel, to the right top of the vertical (cols. VIII, IX), is a peculiarity of Girnār.
- (3) The forms of I in cols. III, IV, are the common ones; that in col. X, which agrees with the I of the Gupta period and later types, is rare. (4) The rare  $\overline{I}$ , which, as may be inferred from the Gayā alphabet of the masons, existed already in the 3rd century B. C., occurs also in the Mahābodhi-Gayā inscriptions, pl. 10, Nos. 9, 10, where Cunningham reads Im, because it appears in the representative of the Sanskrit Indra. Though this reading is possible, I consider it improbable, as it would be necessary to assume for I a not traceable form,

<sup>1</sup> Compare B.IS. III2, 36 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The bracketed Arabic figures of section C. correspond with those of plate II; for § 16, C to E, compare also B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 58 ff.

consisting of two dots side by side with a third dot above on the left, thus: . . In later times (see pl. VI, 4, V, VII) the angles of the square are turned towards the top and the bottom lines.

- (5, 6) Hultzsch (ZDMG. 40, 71) admits that the sign 6, XVIII, looks like  $\overline{U}$ , but prefers to read O for linguistic reasons, which seems to be unnecessary according to E. Muller, Simplified Pāli Grammar, 12 f. The existence of  $\overline{U}$  in the 3rd century may be inferred from the Gayā alphabet of the masons.
- (7) Add the horseshoe-form of E (Kālsī edict V, 16, &c.) from the comparative table on page 11 above, No. 16, col. V, b. The half-round E of col. XXII. occurs also in Sāñci Stūpa I, No. 173. The AI, which has been placed in this row (col. XXI), existed in the 3rd century, as may be inferred from the Gayā alphabet of the masons. (8) Regarding the O of Dhauli and Jaugada in col. VI, see above, § 4, B, 4, a.
- (9) The dagger-shaped ka occurs occasionally in all versions of the Aśoka edicts, most rarely in Girnār. — (10) The oldest among the seven forms of kha is that in col. II (Kālsī) and col. VI (Jaugada separate edicts and Bharahut Stūpa inscription). Hence come first the northern kha, with the loop on the right, col. III (Kālsī and Bharahut), and a form, nearly identical with that of col. XVIII, in Jaugada separate edict I, l. 4. The next derivative from this is the kha with a bent vertical and a dot at the foot, in cols. IV, V. Likewise of northern origin is the kha with the triangle at the foot, in khya, 43, V; compare Mahābodhi-Gayā, pl. 10, No. 3, and Bharahut. Another derivative from the primary form in col. III. is the kha of cols. VII, IX-XII, with a point at the foot of the perfectly straight vertical, and it occurs both in the south in Girnār, Siddapura, Dhauli, and Jaugada, and in the north in Allahabad, Delhi-Mirat, Mathia, Radhia, Rāmpūrvā, and Bairāt No. I. The kha, consisting of a simple hook with the omission of the dot, in col. VIII, is confined to the southern versions and is particularly common in Girnar. — (11) The ga, which is originally pointed at the top, is sometimes slightly rounded, in cols. IV, VI, X-XII. - (12) The primary angular gha appears occasionally in Kālsī (col. III) and in the Jaugada separate edicts. - I add here the figure of na from the Gaya alphabet of the masons, which has been discovered after the preparation of the plates; compare my Indian Studies, III2, pp. 31, 76.
- (13) The primary ca with tail (see above, § 4, A, 18) occurs also in Sāñci Stūpa I, Nos. 269 and 284 (EI. 2, 368). (14) The primary cha with unequal [36] halves in cols. VI, VII, becomes first a circle, bisected by the vertical, cols. III, IV, and hence is derived the later usual form with two loops in col. II, and in the Gayā alphabet. (15) The forms of ja, all of which have been derived from the j of the Drāviḍī (cols. XIII—XVI) may be divided (a) into essentially northern forms with a loop in col. III (Kālsī and Mathia), or with a dot in cols. IV, V (Allahabad, Delhi-Sivālik, Delhi-Mirat, Bairāt No. I, Niglīva, Paḍeria, Dhauli, Jaugada, and Siddāpura), or with a short central stroke in col. II (Kālsī, Jangada separate edicts, Sahasrām, and Rūpnāth), and ( $\delta$ ) into southern forms, those in cols. VIII, X, XI, XVI (Girnār, Dhauli, Jaugada, and Ghasundi), and that in col. IX (Girnār).
- (18) In addition to the semicircular !a, we often find secondary forms, flattened above or below or at both ends, as in cols. II, XI, XVI. (20) With the round-backed da of Kālsī in col. III, compare also the similar di in the Allahabad Queen's edict, line 3.
- (23) From the primary ta in col. III, and 43, III (tu), which is often turned sideways (see comparative table at page 11 above No. 22, V, b), comes (a) the form with the round side-limb in cols. IV, V, XVI, as well as that in col. VI, and 43, col. II (ti), and (b) the very common ta with the angle just below the vertical in col. XI, from which finally the tertiary form with the semicircle for the angle in col. XII (common in later times) appears to be derived.—(25) From the primary rounded da in cols. II, III, comes (a) the angular form in cols. IV, V (Delhi-

Mirat, Delhi-Sivālik, Allahabad Kosambī edict, and Allahabad Queen's edict), and (b) the cursive da in cols. VII, IX (Girnār, Jangada, &c., rarely). — (26) The original dha of cols. V—VII appears only in Delhi-Sivālik (rarely) and in the Jangada separate edicts (constantly).

- (28, 29) The angular pa and pha of col. XII. and col. VI. occurs here and there in various versions. (30) Add the ba of the comparative table, page 11 above, No. 2, V, a, which is not rare in Kālsī and other versions. (31) The secondary bha with the straight stroke on the right, col. XVI, and that with the rounded back, col. VI (Jangada separate edicts), appear also in Bharahut (constantly), Sāñci (often), Barābar, and Kālsī. (32) The secondary ma with the semicircle at the top occurs throughout in the northern inscriptions, except in the Sohgaura copper-plate, which offers a ma with an open square, similar to that of Siddāpura, cols. XI, XII. The older ma with the angle above the circle, cols. VIII—X, is a southern form, and is confined to Girnār (exclusively) and Dhauli and Jaugada (rarely).
- (33) The notched ya in cols. IV, V, VII, XI, is used either constantly or chiefly in Delhi-Sivālik, Delhi-Mirat, Mathia, Radhia, Rāmpūrvā, Niglīva, Paderia, and Kālsī. It is also very common in Dhauli, Jaugada, and Siddāpura. But in Girnār the ya with the curve below is the usual one, cols. VIII, X, XII, besides which that with the angle, col. IX, is found occasionally. In writing the notched ya, the left half of the sign has been made first, and the right half has been added afterwards. In the ya with the curve below, the vertical and the curve have been drawn separately, as may be seen from igam in No. 1 of the Siddapura inscriptions, edict I, line 4. — (34) Add the forms of ra from Girnar given in the comparative table on page 11 above, No. 20, V,  $\alpha$  and c. The corkscrew-like  $r\alpha$  of Ghasundi, col. XVI. and the tertiary, almost straight-lined, form of Rupnath (between cols. VII, VIII), seem to be northern cursive forms of the letter. — (35) The angular la of cols. III, V, appears occasionally in most versions, whereas the highly cursive form in col. VII. is confined to the Jaugada separate edicts. — (36) Add the modern-looking va of the comparative table on page 7 above, No. 19 (Kālsī). The va of Siddāpura in col. XII, flattened below, and the triangular one of Ghasundi in col. XVI, appear occasionally in other versions. The va of col. IX, which resembles a ca turned round from right to left, is found also in Vesagame, Songaura, line 2.
- (37) Add the broad-backed śα of the comparative table on page 11, No. 21, V, ε; and compare the śα in Kālsī edict XIII, 1, lines 35, 37, 38; 2, lines 17, 19. (38) The conjectural reading of the signs of Kālsī in cols. II, III, is based on Senart's Inscriptions de Piyadasi, 1, 33 f. The ṣα from which the later forms have been derived is that of col. XVI. (39) The primary sα with the straight side-limb has been preserved only in the south (Girnār and Siddāpura). The cursive form in col. VII. occurs also in Kālsī.
- (40) Add the probably primary ha of Siddāpura in the comparative table on page 11 above, No. 5,  $V_r$   $a_r$ -which [37] is found also in Kālsī. The cursive ha of col. VII. is confined to the Jaugada separate edicts; a somewhat different cursive occurs in mahamāta, Allahabad Kosambī edict, line 1.
- (41) A certain a is not found in the known inscriptions of the 3rd century, as the a of Sañci, in col. XVIII, belongs without doubt to the 2nd century B. C. But it is possible that the a with the dot, 20, col. VI (Radhia), has to be read a. The sign appears in Delhi-Sivālik, Mathia, and Radhia (edict V) in the representative of the Sanskrit a or

## D. - Medial vowels and Anusvara.

- (1) The originally straight stroke for  $\bar{a}$  is often turned upwards in Kālsī (see, for instance,  $s\bar{a}$ , 37, 111) and occasionally in other versions, after the manner prevalent in later times. In  $kh\bar{a}$  (10, V, VI),  $j\bar{a}$  (15, VI, &c.),  $l\bar{a}$  (18, 11),  $lh\bar{a}$  (11),  $lh\bar{a}$  (24, 11), the  $\bar{a}$ -stroke is added to the middle of the letter. Bharahut offers also a  $j\bar{a}$  like that of 15, XXI.
- (2) The angular i (see, for instance, khi, 10, II becomes, regularly in Girnār (see dhi, 21, IX) and varely in the Jangada separate educts (see khi, 10, V II), a shallow curve, which in khi (10, VIII), in m (27, IX), and other letters ending in verticals, may be attached to the middle of the consonant, and which frequently is very much like  $\bar{a}$ . In Kāl-ī educt XIII, 2, 10, the medial i of i (43, IL stands twice to the left of its consonant, likewise in ii in Allahabad edict I (end), and in hi in the Soligaura copper-plate, line 4.—(3) The medial i of Girnār usually consists of a shallow curve bisected by a vertical (di, 25, IX); but in i (18, IX) it is marked by two vertical strokes, and in ih (24, IX) by two slanting ones.
- (4) The full u which is identical with U occurs in the dhu (26, III) of Kālsī several times. It is also recognisable in hu (9, V), gu (11, IX), du (20, VII), and other letters ending in verticals, which latter have to do double duty as parts of the consonants and of the vowel; see below, the remarks on some ligatures under E, I. Elsewhere we have secondary forms: (a) such as omit the horizontal, in dhu (26, II), pu (28, III), &c.; (b) such as omit the vertical, in tu (23, V), &c. In tu the u-stroke is occasionally turned upwards, as in 23, VIII and 43, III; compare the later  $t\bar{u}$  of pl. III, 21, XIX. (5) The identity of medial  $\bar{u}$  with  $\bar{U}$  is still recognisable in letters ending in verticals, as in  $bh\bar{u}$  (31, X), &c., where the vertical again does double duty. But mostly the vowel is expressed by two strokes, either parallel as in  $dh\bar{u}$  (26, X) and in  $y\bar{u}$  (33, VII) or placed otherwise as in  $t^{1}\bar{u}$  (28, VIII, XVI).
- (6) Signs like ge (11, IV) perhaps offer still remnants of the hook-form of medial e, into which the originally super-imposed triangle no doubt was reduced at first (see above, § , C, 1); and the e-strokes of khe (10, III), ge (11, III), and gye (42, VII), which slant downwards from the left to the right, may have to be interpreted in the same way. In ge (15, VII), ge (18, V), ge (1, XII), and ge (24, XII), the vowel stands opposite to the middle of the consonant; in ge it is often attached to the left end of the hook. (7) Medial ge occurs only in ge (23, IX) and ge (24, X), both in ge (11, III) and in ge (32, XII; Siddāpura)
- (8) Medial o preserves mostly the original shape of O very faithfully (see above, § 1, C. 1). The later cursive o with the two bars at the same height appears however in go (11, V; Delhi-Sivālik) and ho (40, V; Delhi Sivālik), as well as in the yo of the Persian sigloi. In mo (32, VII, X; Jaugada separate edicts, Mathia, Radhia, and Girnār, the o has been formed in a similar manner. In the second form, the bars stand opposite the middle, and indicate that analogous mā and me existed already in the 3rd century B. C., just as later; see pl. III, 30, X, XII. In the no of Kālsī edict V, line 14 we have a looped o, similar to that in lo of pl III, 33, XX, and in later signs.
- (9) The Anusvāra mostly stands opposite the middle of the preceding Mātṛkā, as in mam (32, VIII) But in connection with i it is placed regularly in [33] Delhi-Sivālik, Delhi-Mirat, Mathia, Radhia, Jaugada, and Dhauli, inside the angle of the vowel, as in tin (18, VI). There are also other cases in which it occ sionally appears, as in the later scripts, above its Mātṛkā, and sometimes, as in mam (32, II), it sinks to the foot of the latter; see above, § 4, B, 2 e.

# E. — Ligatures.

(1) In the ordinary ligatures of the Asoka edicts (42, II—VII, X-XII; 43, V-VIII, XI, XII; 44, III—VII, XI, XII; 45, IV, V, X), in those of Bharabut (45, XI) and of Ghasundi (42, 43, XVI), the consonants are placed below each other in their natural order and

suffer no material changes. Occasionally, however, as in  $ky\bar{a}$  (42, II, IV), kye (42, III),  $gy\bar{a}$  (42, VI), and gye (42, VII), a single vertical stroke does duty both for the upper and the lower consonant, just as in the modern ligatures  $\pi$ ,  $\pi$ , and so forth; compare also the Kharosthi ligatures, § 11 above, C, 3.

(2) But there are cases of greater irregularities, especially in Girnār, where (a) the second sign is sometimes greatly mutilated or made cursive, as in vya (44, II), mya (44, VIII), str and stu (45, VIII, IX); (b) the sign for the second consonant is sometimes placed first (Girnār and Siddāpura) for convenience sake, as in siā, sṭi (42, VIII. IX), tpa, tpā (43, IX, X), vyā (44, X, ?); and (c) in ligatures with ra, this sign is either (both in Girnār and Siddāpura) inserted in the vertical lines of the other consonant (kra, 9, X; tram, 23, X; dra, 25, XII; brā, 30, X; vra, 36, X; sru, 39, X), or (in Girnār alone) is indicated by a small hook at the top of the combined sign (trai, 23, IX; pra, prā, 28, IX, X; &c.). The position of ra always remains the same, whether it is to be pronounced before or after the combined consonant, and thus 36, X, has the value both of rea and of vra. The insertion of ra in the left vertical of ba in brā (30, X) probably goes back to the period when the writing went from the right to the left. Otherwise it ought to stand in the right vertical.

## § 17. — The Dravidi of Ehattiprolu; Plate II.

To the remarks on the value of the Dravidi of Bhattiprolu for the history of writing in India (above, page >), and to the explanations of its peculiar signs (above, § 6, A, 3, 7, 12, 15, 18; B, 4 c, 5; and C, 2), I have now to add the reasons for the assumed reading of the sign in pl. II, 38, XIII—XV. It seems to me certain that originally it had the value of s. For there can be no doubt that it expresses a sibilant, and that the Dravidi is, like the Brahmi, an alphabet invented in order to write Sauskrit (see above, § 5, C, 2). As signs for two of the three Sanskrit sibilants are easily recognisable, — the palatal in 37, XIII, XIV, and the dental in 39, XIII. XIV, XV,- the third sign can only have been intended to express the lingual sibilant. But it is a different question, whether in the words of the Prakrit Bhattiprolu inscriptions, in which the sign occurs, the lingual sibilant was actually pronounced, or whether, owing to the negligent orthography of the clerks, the sign has been put where the pronunciation was s or s. A certain answer to this question is for the present impossible. It could be given only if we knew more about the ancient Prakrit of the Kiatna districts [39] than is actually the But the correct use of sa in samanudesanam. Bhattiprolu, No. X) indicates that the dialect possessed two sibilants; and it can only be doubted, whether s has been put erroneously for s, as often happens in the Jaina inscriptions from Mathurā (compare EI 1, 376), or whether it was still the lingual sibilant. Another point in the character of the Dravidi, which requires special mention, is, that its signs, which agree with those of the Biahmi, in several cases present characteristic peculiarities of the southern variety. This may be seen (1) in the angular A, A; (2) in the kh (10, XIII, XV) consisting, like that of Girnar, merely of a vertical, with a hook at the top; (3) in the dh, which has the same position as that of the Jangada separate edicts and the Nanaghat inscriptions; (+) in m, which, though turned topsy-turvy, retains the angle of the ma of Girnar; and (5) in s, which mostly has the straight side-limb, as in Girnār and Siddāpura.

As the inscription on the crystal prism (No. X), found with the stone vessels, shows the ordinary Brāhmī except in the da opening to the right, it follows that the Drāvicī was not used exclusively even in the Kistna districts, but together with the common old Indian alphabet. The small number of the inscriptions higher to tound, makes it impossible to say anything definite regarding the spread of this alphabet. And it is equally difficult to fix with certainty the time and the duration of its use. As king Kubuaka or Khubiraka (Kubera) is not known from other sources, we can only fall back on the never absolutely certain paleographic indications.

<sup>1</sup> O. FRANKE, Gurupujākanmudi 26, thinks that these groups should be read too, tei, as the are written-

The signs, which agree with the Brāhmī, point to the time immediately after Aśoka, or about B. C. 200. In favour of this estimate is particularly the occurrence of the long verticals, the invariably round g, and the r, which is always represented by a straight line.

# § 18. — The last four alphabets of Plate II.

In addition to the inscriptions of Daśaratha (col. XVII), which very probably belong just to the end of the 3rd century B. C. (see above, § 16, A), only those of the Ceta king Khāravela of Kalinga (cols. XXI, XXII) and those of the Andhra queen Nāyanikā in the Nānāghāt cave (cols. XXIII, XXIV) can be dated approximately. Khāravela's inscription must have been incised between B. C. 157 and 147, as the king's thirteenth year is said to correspond to the year 165 of "the time of the Muriya (Mauriya) kings," and it fixes also the time of the Nānāghāt inscription. For, according to line 4, Khāravela assisted in the second year of his reign a western king called Sātakaṇi. This Sātakaṇi probably is identical with the first Andhra prince of that name mentioned in the Purāṇas, whose inscribed image is found in the Nānāghāt cave. Hence the date of the large inscription, which was incised during the regency of Sātakaṇi's widow Nāyanikā, cannot be much later than B. C. 150.2

Paleographic evidence is almost the only help for fixing the time of Dhanabhūti's inscription on the toraṇa of the Bharahut Stūpa (col. XVIII), which was incised "during the rule of the Sungas," as well as that of the Pabhosa cave inscriptions (col. XIX) and of the oldest votive documents from Mathurā (col. XX), all of which of er (see above, § 15, 5) the Sunga type of the ancient Brāhmī. To judge from the evidently close connection of their characters, partly with the younger Maurya alphabet and partly with the Kalinga script, the signs of cols. XVIII, XIX, probably belong to the second century B. C. Those of col. XX. may date from the first century B. C., as the elongation of the lower parts of the verticals of A,  $\overline{A}$  (1, 2), the broad back of śa (37), the cursive a (41) and the subscribed a in a (42), which is twisted to the left, point to a later time.

The tendency to shorten the upper vertical lines, mentioned already above (§ 16, A), is, though here and there not fully carried through, common to all the four scripts. The broadening of the letter or of the lower parts of ga, ta, pa, bha, ya, la, sa and ha, is found only in the last [40] three alphabets; and the thickening of the tops of the upper verticals, and the use of the so-called Serif, are particularly remarkable only in the Sunga and Kalinga alphabets. Tendencies in the direction of later developments are found, not only in the letters of col. XX, already mentioned, but also in the round du (20, XXII, XXIII), so characteristic for the later southern alphabets, in is a with the curved upper horizontal line (22, XVIII, XIX) in the partly or entirely angular ma (32, XIX, XXII) in the semicircular medial i of ki (9, XXII), bi (30, XXII), and vi (36, XXIV), as well as in the detached o of yo (11, XXII), the (19, XXIV) and the (24, XXIV). The single medial au of the plate, in pau (28, XVIII), deserves to be noted.

As regards the geographical distribution of these types, the younger Maurya alphabet belongs not only to the north-east (Bihār), but also to the north-west, where its ja and sa are found on the coins of the two Indo-Grecian kings, mentioned above (§ 15, 4). The Kalinga alphabet is of course that of the south-eastern coast, and the type of the Nānāghāṭ inscriptions that of the western Dekhan. Finally, the Sunga type probably represents the script of the centre of India. It, however, extends also to the west, as the same or very similar characters are found in the caves of the Marāṭhā country; compare § 15 above, 5, note 3.

Very little can be said regarding the duration of the use of these scripts. The Indo-Grecian coins show that the younger Maurya characters were used in the first half of the 2nd

<sup>1</sup> Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 149; compare Östreichische Monatsschr für d. Or., 1884, 231 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 146; differently Bhandarkar, Early Hist, of the Dakkan<sup>2</sup>, 34, who assigns Satakani to the period B. C. 40 to A. D. 16.

century B. C. The Kalinga script is visible also in the inscriptions of Khāravela's next descendants <sup>2</sup> If hurgess has correctly fixed the time of the Pitalkhorā caves, <sup>3</sup> it would follow that the script of the Nānāgnāt inscriptions continued to be used in the first century A. D.

## § 19. - The precursors of the northern alphabets.

## A. — The alphabet of the Northern Kentrapas; Plate III.

Immediately connected with the latest forms of the Suiga type in the oldest Jaina inscriptions from Mathurā (pl. II, col. XX) is the alphabet of the Northern Kşarrapas on the coins and in the inscriptions of the Mahākṣatrapa Rājuvula or Ra jubula and of his son Soḍāsa or Sudasa, who ruled in the first century B. C. or A. D. (?) over the same town. And some "archaic" votive inscriptions from Mathurā, as well as legends on certain Indian coins, exhibit the early letters of the same type. 5

The characteristics of this type (plate III, cols. I, II) are the equalisation of all the upper verticals, except in la (33 I); the constant use of the Serif, occasionally replaced, as in bha (29, I), by a nail-head or wedge; and the constant use of angular forms for gha (10, I), ja (13, I, II), pa (26, I, II), pha (27, I), ma (30, I, II), la (33, I), sa (36, I), and ha (38, I, II). Other, mostly cursive, innovations are found in the peruliar ca (11, I); in the slanting angular da (18, I); in da (23, I), in the broadened bha (29, I, II), in ra with the curve at the end (32, I, II), which occasionally reappears also later (see pl. IV, 33, IV) in northern inscriptions: in the medial vowels  $\bar{a}$  (which in  $h\bar{a}$ , 38, II, rises upwards, but in  $r\bar{a}$ , 32, I, keeps its ancient form), i (in di, 23, I), o (in gho, 10, I, and io, 35, II); and in the position of the Anusvāra above the line (in  $n\bar{a}m$ , 20, I). The ka shows, besides the old form in 7, I. II, the later one with the bent bars in  $k_{S}a$  (40, I). The upper part of the abnormal va (34, II) with two triangles, which sometimes is found also in the Kuṣana inscriptions and elsewhere, [41] probably represents a hollow wedge. The inscriptious of this class for the first time show? the medial r which consists, exactly like that of the Kuṣana inscriptions in  $v_{I}$  (34, III), of a straight line slanting towards the left.

#### B. — The alphabet of the Kusana inscriptions; Plate III.

The next step in the development of the Brāhmī of Northern India is illustrated by the inscriptions from the time of the Kusana kings Kaniska Huviska and Vāsuska or Vāsudeva (plate III, cols. III – V), the first among whom made an end of the rule of the older Sakas in the eastern and southern Paījīb. The inscriptions with the names of these kings, which run from the year 4 to the year 98 (according to the usually accepted opinions, of the Saka era of A. D. 77-78, or of the 4th century of the Seleucid era). Fare very numerous in Mathurā and its neighbourhood, and are found also in eastern Rājputāna and in the Central Indian Agency (Sāñci). In spite of great variations in the single letters, which occasionally exhibit the more modern forms in the older inscriptions and the earlier forms of the Northern Kṣatrapa type in the later documents, the alphabet possesses a very characteristic appearance, and nobody who once has seen the squat and broad letters of the Kuṣana period will ever make a mistake by assigning them to other times.

<sup>1</sup> Compare above, § 16, note 4.
2 Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 179, Udayagiri inscription Nos. 3, 4.
3 Buddhist Cave Temples, 243.
4 See above, § 10.

Comp. also facsimiles in C.ASB. 3, pl. 13, No. 1: EI. 1, 392, No. 17; C.CAI. pl. 3, No. 14; pl. 6; pl. 8, No. 2 ff.
 EI. 2, 20; No. 12; 207, No. 32; hollow wedges are found also in the facsimiles in C.ASR. 10, pl. 23, No. 1; F.GI (CII. 3), No. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>τ</sup> In vṛṣṇṇāṃ, C.ASR. 20, pl. 5, line 2.

<sup>\*</sup> IA. 10, 213; C.CIS. 51 ff., 57; BELYDIRKAE, Early Hist. of the Dekkan<sup>2</sup>, 23, note 1, thinks that Kaniska ruled later; but S. Lévi, J.A. 1897, I, 5 ff., places even Va. udeva in the first century A. D.; the years 4 and 5 of thus era occur in El. 2, 201, Nos. 11, 12; Kaniska, the year 7, El. 1, 391, No. 19.

<sup>9</sup> See facsimile, EI. 2, 369.

As regards the details, the following innovations deserve special mention: 1 - (1) Side by side with more ancient signs, the A of col. IV. shows a form leading up to the modern A of the Nagari of Western India; compare also pl. IV, 1, IX, XI ff. (2) The bar denoting the length of A is attached low down (2, III, IV); compare pl. IV, 2, VII ff. (3) Three strokes, one of which is set up vertically, take the place of the three dots of I (3, III). (4) The horizontal stroke of U occasionally shows a curve at the left end (4. IV). (5) The base of the triangular E (5, IV, V) is mostly at the top; compare pl. IV, 5, X ff. (6) The khu (8, III-V) is mostly triangular below, and its hook is often small. (7) One of the two originally horizontal strokes of na is always turned into a curve notched in the middle, and sometimes both are changed in this manner, as in 20, III, IV; occasionally the vertical is split up into two lines, which are attached to the ends of the left horizontal line, each bearing a portion of the curved top-bar (20, V). (8) The ta shows sometimes, but rarely, a loop, as in sti (43, 1V). (9) The lower end of da (23, III-V) is drawn further to the right, and the bulge on the right becomes larger. (10) The dha (24, III, IV) becomes narrower and pointed at the ends. (11) The horizontal stroke of na is curved (25, III) or looped (25, IV), whereby the still more modern looking form in 25, V, is developed. (12) The ya (31, III-V) mostly has a hook or circle on the left limb. and in ligatures is either looped as in ryya (42, III), or bipartite as in ryya (41, V). (13) The va is occasionally rounded on the left (34, V), or becomes similar to ca, as in reva (42, IV). (14) The śa (35, III-V) becomes narrower, and its middle stroke lies horizontally across the interior; sometimes the left down-stroke bears a Serif at the end, or the right one is made longer, just as in ga (9, V); compare pl. IV, 36, I ff. (15) The central bar of su (36, III—V) goes straight across the interior of the letter. (16) The left limb of sa is occasionally, but rarely, turned into a loop (37, IV); compare plate IV, 38, I ff.

All these peculiarities, as well as the advanced forms of the medial vowels, of  $\bar{a}$  in  $r\bar{a}$  (32, IV), of u in ku (7, IV, V) and in stu (43, V), and of o in to (21, IV), reappear constantly in the northern alphabets of the next period, those of the Gupta inscriptions (pl. IV, cols I—VII) and of the Bower MS (pl. VI, cols. I—III), or are precursors of the forms of those documents. The literary alphabets used in Mathurā during the first two centuries A. D., very likely were identical with or closely similar to the later ones, and the admixture of older forms, observable in the inscriptions of the Kuṣana period, may be due purely to an imitation of older votive inscriptions.

Attention must be called to the medial r in tr (21, IV) and [42] in vr (34, III), for which we have also once<sup>3</sup> the form of pl. IV, 3, III; likewise to the rather common final m, which resembles that in ddham (41, VIII), and to the Visarga, which looks exactly like the modern one (compare 40, 41, IX) and first appears in these inscriptions.<sup>4</sup> The broad strokes of the letters and their thick tops indicate that they imitate an alphabet written with ink.

## § 20. — The precursors of the southern alphabets.

## A. — The alphabet of the Kṣatrapas of Mālva and Gujarāt; Plate III.

While the inscriptions of Northern India thus show in the first and second centuries A. D. the beginning of the development of a new local variety of the Brāhmī, we find in the documents from Western and Central India, as well as from the Dekhan, the first steps leading up to the later southern alphabets. The inscriptions and coins of the Kṣatrapa dynasty of Mālva and Gujarāt, descended from Caṣṭana or Tiastanes, illustrate the western writing, and col. VI, taken from the Girnār Praśasti of the reign of Rudradāman (about A. D. 160)<sup>5</sup> gives a specimen of it. This script agrees with the later southern alphabets (§ 27, below) in the following characteristic points: — (1) in the curves at the ends of A and  $\overline{A}$  (1, 2), ka (7),

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare my remarks, EI. 1, 371 ff.; 2, 197.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare the iu of plate II, 43, III.

<sup>8</sup> EI. 1, 389, No. 13.

Compare, for instance. nal., EI. 1, 382, No. 3.

<sup>5</sup> BHANDARKAB, Early Hist. of the Dekkan<sup>2</sup>, 26 ff., C.CMI. 3—5; BHAGVĀNLĀL, J.RAS. 1890, 642; BÜBLEB. Die ind. Inschr. u das. Alter d. ind. Kunstpoesie, 46 ff.

 $\tilde{n}a$  (15) ra (32), and of medial u and  $\tilde{u}$  (not in the plate); (2) in the round-backed da (18); (3) in the ba 28, notched on the left; (4) in the la (33) with the vertical bent to the left; and (5) in the medial r (see sr, 37), which is difficult to distinguish from ra. Its other letters, for instance,  $\delta a$  (35) and the tripartite subscribed ya of lya (42, partly agree with those of the inscriptions of Sodisa, and partly, — for instance, kha (8), na (25) with the bent base-line, pa (26) with the notch in the left vertical, ya (31) with the curve on the left, and the frequently rounded va (34), — with the types of the Kuṣana period. Peculiar is its la (16). Its cursive medial  $\tilde{u}$ , which is used only in  $n\tilde{u}$  (25) and in  $r\tilde{u}$  (compare pl. VII, 33, III), and the au in yau (31), besides which the older form of pl. II, 28, XVIII, is used, appear here for the first time.

The letters on the somewhat older coins¹ of Rudradāman's grandfather Caṣṭana and of his father Jayadāman, which probably were struck in Ujjain, exhibit no material differences. Among the later Kṣatrapa inscriptions,² that from Junāga¹h, incised during the reign of Rudradāman's son Rudrasinha, fully agrees with the Girnār Praśasti. The Gunda inscription of the same prince from the year 103 (or, according to the usual assumption, from A. D. 180), and the Jasdan inscription of Rudrasinha's son Rudrasena from the year 127 (?) or A. D. 204-205, show a few more advanced characters. Both these documents offer the bipartite subscribed ya; and the second has several times the northern ma of the Gupta period (pl. IV, 31, Iff), as well as the e standing above the line (compare, for instance, ne, pl. VII, 27, V). The same ma, or a similar sign with a straight base-stroke, appears also frequently on the coins of the later Kṣatrapas.³ Its occurrence probably indicates a northern influence, perhaps that a northern alphabet was used at the same time; compare § 28 below, A.

## B. — The alphabets of the cave-inscriptions of the western Dekhan and the Konkan; Plate III.

[48] The writing of the western Dekhan and the Konkan in the caves of Nāsik, Junnar, Kārle, Kanheri Kudā, &c., shows three varieties, an "archaistic" or retrograde type, a more advanced one with mostly faint traces of southern peculiarities, and an ornamental one. The first two appear in the oldest dated inscriptions of the Saka Uşavadāta or Usabhadāta (Rṣabhadatta), the son-in-law of the Kṣaharāta king and Kṣatrapa Nahapāna from the years 41 to 45 of, according to the usual assumption, the Saka era, or from A. D. 118 to 122. The Kārle inscription No. 19 (col. VII) offers the "archaistic" or retrograde type, among the letters of which ghr (10), ja (13), da (23), bha (29), ya (31), la (33), sa (37) and ha (38) come close to the forms in the older alphabets of pl. II, especially to those of the oldest Andhra inscriptions in cols. XXIII, XXIV. The same variety is found in some other, partly older, inscriptions of the same caves, and must be regarded as a direct development from the ancient Andhra type. It shows only very faint traces of the southern peculiarities enumerated above. The curves at the ends of the verticals are only rudimentary. The vertical of la is curved, but to the right. The triangular dha (24), which appears here for the first time, is found also in other alphabets of this plate (see col. XI ff.); the abnormal kha (8) is confined to Kārle No. 19.

Against this rather clumsy alphabet, we find in Uṣavadāta's inscriptions from Nāsik (cols. VIII, 1X) very neatly made letters, the ductus of which resembles that of Sodāsa's inscriptions (col. I) and of the Girnār Praśasti (col. VI). They show no trace of archaic forms, and the traces of the southern peculiarities are faint or entirely wanting. Only the southern da (18) is distinct and constant. Noteworthy are śa (35, 42, VIII), which agrees with that of col. VI, the final m in ddham (41. VIII), and the tripartite subscribed ya in bhyah (41, IX).

<sup>1</sup> C.CMI. pl. 1; J.RAS. 1890, pl at p. 638, B.ASRWI. 2, pl 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare facsimiles in B.ASEWI. 2, pl. 20; J.BBRAS. 8, 234; Sanskr. and Prakr. Insers. Bhaunagar, pl. 17—19 (unreliable).

See the plates cited in note 1 above. 

4 Usabhadāta only in Kārle No. 19, B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 51.

<sup>5</sup> Thu: Bhāndērkar, Early Hist. of the Dekkan<sup>2</sup>, 23, and Bhagvānlāl, J.RAS, 1890, 642; see also Bühler, Die ind. Inschr. u. das Alter der ind. Kunstpoesie, 57 f.; while Cunningham, CMI. 3 f., refers Nahapāna's dates to the Mālava era of B. C. 57-36, and Oldenberg, IA. 10, 227, places Nahapāna between A. D. 55 and 100.

<sup>\*</sup> Karle, Nos. 1-14, B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 47, 48; Nasik, No. 4, op. cit., pl. 51.

Very similar to this script is that of the Nāsik inscriptions (No. 11, a, b, = col. X) of the Andhra king Gotamiputa Sātakani, who destroyed the Kṣaharāta dynasty, - possibly just Nahapāna and Usavadāta, — and of his son Siri-Puļumāyi, Puļumāi or Puhmāvi (Nāsik No. 14, = col XI), who is mentioned by Ptolemy as Siri-Polemaios or Polemios. The only material difference occurs in the triangular dha (24, XI; compare col. VII), which however is by no means constant. Nearly of the same type are the alphabets shewn in col. XII. from the Nāsik inscription of the somewhat later Andhra king Gotamiputa Siriyana Sātakaņi, in col. XIII. from the undated inscription Nāsik No. 20, and in col XIV. from Nāsik No. 12, incised during the reign of the Abhīra king Īśvarasena.2 In col. XII, however, we have a peculiar form of ta (21) developed from a looped form, a looped na (25) somewhat differing from the northern form in col. IV, a ra (32) with a stronger curve, and a lu (33) with the vertical bent towards the left; further, in col. XIII. a looped ta (21), and in col. XIV. a ta (21) and a na (25) derived from looped forms, a ya (31) with a curve on the left, a la (33) bent towards the left, a cursive subscribed  $\tilde{n}a$  in  $j\tilde{n}ah$  (40), and a peculiar, r-like, medial u in du (23), which reappears in later southern inscriptions; compare, for instance, bhu, pl. VII, 30, XII, and the  $\bar{u}$  in  $t\bar{u}$ , pl. III, 21, XVII, XIX.

Cols. XV, XVI, give two somewhat differing specimens of the ornamental variety of this period according to the undated inscriptions of Kuca (Nos. 1-6, 11, 20) and of Junnar (No. 3). Both agree in the ornamental treatment of medial i and i. But the Kuda inscriptions extend it to the curves at the ends of all verticals, and show notches in the left [44] strokes of pu (26) and ba (2d; compare col. VI). In col. XVI. there are two other noteworthy signs, the bipartite subscript ya in yya (40), and the śa with the horizontal bar in śri (41: compare 35, III-V). Ornamental forms, resembling those of cols. XV XVI, are found also in the approximately datable inscriptions of Pulamāyi in Kārle Nos. 20, 22, and of the minister of the queen of his successor Vāsithīputa Sātakaņi in Kauheri No. 11. The first two of these documents show a looped ta and a na like that of col. XVII; the third exhibits the neat characters of Western Kşatrapa inscriptions. It is, therefore, certain that duting the 2nd century A. D. all these three varieties were used promiscuously in the western Dekhan and the Koi kan,3 and the inscriptions from the Amarāvatī Stūp. 4 prove that they occurred also on the eastern coast of India. The contemporaneous employment of more advanced types and of more archaic ones with an admixture of more modern signs will have to be explained in this, as in other cases, by a desire to select archaic and monumental forms for epigraphic purposes and a failure to completely carry out this intention.

#### C. — The alphabet of the Jaggayyapeta inscriptions; Plate III.

In the Kistna districts of the eastern coast, a still more ornamental alphabet, found in the Jaggayyapeta inscriptions from the time of the lkṣvāku king Sırıvīra Purisadatta (cols. XVII, XVIII), as well as in some Amarāvatī inscriptions, was developed out of the ornamental variety just discussed, probably somewhat later, in the 3rd century A. D. One of its most prominent characteristics is the very considerable elongation of the verticals of A,  $\bar{A}$ , ka,  $\bar{n}a$ , ra and la, as well as of the medial i,  $\bar{i}$  and u. To a later time point the cursive forms of tha and ka, which latter agrees with the northern Gupta form (pl. IV, 39, I, VI), and the medial e of me (30), which, with its downward curve, agrees with the e of the later southern inscriptions (compare 30, XIX, XX, and pl. VII, 35, XII), and the medial  $\bar{u}$  in  $t\bar{u}$  (21; compare col. XIX, and pl. VII, 30, XX). The medial  $\bar{u}$  of  $t\bar{u}$  (40), in which the stroke expressing the length of the vowel has been attached to the head of the consonant, is entirely abnormal.

<sup>1</sup> See the works quoted in note 5 on page 12 above.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to Bhagvanlal's estimate, J RAS 1894, 657, "somewhat later than Nahapana."

<sup>3</sup> Compare facsimiles in B.ASRWI. Vol. 4, pl. 45, Kuḍā Nos. 12—18; pl. 46, Kuḍā Nos. 22—28; Mahād Nos. 1—4; Kol Nos. 3, 5; pl. 47, Beḍsā Nos. 1—3; pl. 48, Kārle Nos. 15—18; Śailarvādī No 19; Junnar Nos. 1, 2; pl. 49—51, Junnar Nos. 4—34; pl. 52, Nāsīk No. 6α; pl. 54, Junnar No. 32; Kārle No. 20; pl. 55, Nāsīk Nos. 17—19, 21—24. and Vol. 5, pl 51, Kauheri Nos. 2—5, 10, 12—14.

<sup>\*</sup> B.ASRSI. 1, pl 53, 57; pl. 58, Nos. 28—'4, 37; pl 59, Nos. 39, 43; pl. 50, Nos. 44, 45, 47—50; pl. 61, Nos. 51—53, 55, 56; and the autotypes of the Andhra coins, C.CAI. pl. 12, and J.BBRAS. 13, pl. 8.

<sup>5</sup> B.ASRSI, 1, pl. 58, Nos. 35, 36; pl. 59, Nos. 38, 40—42; pl. 60, No. 46; pl. 61, No. 54; pl. 62.

## D. - The alphabet of the Fallava Prakrit land-grants; Plate III.

The highly cursive writing of the Prākrit land-grants of the Pallava kings Vijayabuddhavarman and Sivaskandavarman from Kāñcī (Conjeveram) in the Tamil districts. shows in its ductus a certain relationship to the Jaggayyapeta inscriptions. But it is not doubtful that these documents are much later, though it is for the present impossible to fix their dates exactly. The use of Prākrit for official purposes perhaps indicates that they are not later than the first half of the 4th century A. D. The broad E (5, XX) with the rudimentary vertical to the right (compare pl. VII, 6, XI ff.), the da with a tail in rdam (40, XX; compare pl. VII, 19, IV f.), the subscribed that open on the right in ttha (41, XIX; compare pl. VII, 45, XX), and the constantly looped o in lo (33, XX; compare pl. VII, 34, III f., XIII, XVII) point to the later period.

# IV. THE NORTHERN ALPHABETS FROM ABOUT A. D. 350.2 § 21.— Definition and varieties.

[45] By the term "northern alphabets" I understand with Burgess, Fleet, and others, that large group of epigraphic and literary scripts, which from about A. D. 3:0 conquers the whole

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1 Compare facsimiles in IA. 9, 100; EI. 1, 1 ff.
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## PLATE IV. Cuttings from facsimiles.

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Cols. AIII, XIV; from F GI (CII. 3), pl. 41, A.
    Cols. I, II, III; from FLEET, Gupta Inscriptions
                                                               Cols. XV, XVI; from plate at EI. 1, 10.
(CII. 3), pl 1.
                                                               Col. AVII; from plate at IA. 9, 172, Nos. 7, 8, 9.
    Col. IV; from F.GI ('II. 3), pl 5.
    Cols. V, VI; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl. 9, A.
                                                               Cols XVIII, XIX; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl. 28.
                                                               Col. XX; from plate at IA. 1c, 234.
    Col. VII; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl. 9, B.
                                                                Col. XXI; from plate at IA. 15, 112.
    Col. VIII; from plate at EI. 1, 238.
                                                                Co. XX!I; from plate at IA. II, 168.
    Col. IX; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl 13.
                                                                Col. XXIII; from plate at IA. 15, 140.
    Col. X; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl. 22.
    Cols. XI, XII; from F.GI (CII. 3), pl. 30 B, and
31, A, B.
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PLATE V.
Col. I; from photolithograph of impressions of EI.

1, 97.

. The other columns cut from facsimiles : —

Cel. II; from plate at EI. 1, 160.

Col. III: from plate at EI. 1, 242. Col. IV; from plates at 1A 6, 65, and 11, 158.

Col. V; from unpublished facsimiles of IA. 13.

Col. VI; from plate at IA. 17, 310.

Col. VII; from unpublished facsimiles of EI. 1, 162.

Col. VIII; from plate at E1. 1, 77.

Col. IX; from plate at EI. 2, 120.

Col. X; from plate at IA. 6, 50.

Col. XI; from plate at IA. 6, 192.

Col. XII; from plate at IA. 18, II.

Col. XIII; from p'ate at EI. 1, 134.

Col. XIV; from plate at IA. 16, 205.

Col. XV. from plate at EI. 2, 297.

Col. XVI; from Bhaunagar Sankr. and Prakr. Inscriptions, plates to, 41.

Col. XVII; from p'ate at IA. 16, 22.

Col. XVIII; from plate at El. 1, 308.

Col. XIX; from plate at El. 2, 350.

Col. XX; from plate at IA. 18, 130.

Col. XXI; from plates at IA. 11, 71, 337.

Col. XXII; from plate at IA. 16, 2-4. Col. XXIII; from plate at EI. 1, 34.

## PLATE VI.

Cuttings from facsimiles.
Cols. I, II, III, IV, from plates in Hoernle's Bower
MS., parts 1, 2.
Col. 2

Cols. V, VI, VII, and IX; from Anecd. Oxon., Ar. Ser., 1, 3, plate 6, cols. 1, 2, 3.

Col. VIII; from plate at Vienna Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 127 ff.

Col. IX; see above, with cols. V, VI, and VII.

Col. X; from BENDALL, Cat. Buddh. MSS., pl. 2, 4, and Berlin Oriental Congress, Indian Section, pl. 2, 1.

Col. XI; from BENDALL, op. cit., pl. 3, 1.

Col XII; from Berlin Oriental Congress, Indian Section, pl. 2, 2, 3.

Col. XIII; from BENDALL, op. cit., pl. 1, 3.

Col. XIV; from Anecd. Oxon., Ar. Series, 1, 1,

pl. 4.

Cols. XV, XVI, XVII; from Leumann, photogr.

of Decoan College Collection, 1880-81, No. 57: 7, XV,

XVI; 14 and 16, XV; 18, XV, XVI, XVII; 19 and 28,

XV, XVI; 24, XV; 27, XV, XVI: 35, 37, and 41, XVII,

added from Leumann's Visesāvasyaka, pl. 35; 7,

XVII, and 8, 9, 10, XV, and 12, 14, 13, XVI, added

from photogr. of the Royal Asiatic Society's Ganaratnamabodadhi.

Cols. XVIII, XIX; from plates at Vienna Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 111 ff.

Scale of the three plates = two-thirds of the facsimiles.

\* F.CI (CII. 3), 3 f., and passim.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Preparation of Plates IV, V, and VI: -

wide territory north of the Narmada, with the exception of Kathiavad and northern Gujarat, and which, spreading in the course of time more and more, finally is used in a number of varieties for nearly all the Arvan languages of India. Their origin is to be found in the cursive forms, which first appear in the addition to the Asoka edict VI. of Dhauli, and in a number of signs of the Kālsī version (see above, page 6 f.), and later are found, occasionally or constantly, in some of the Jaina votive inscriptions of the Kusana period (see above, § 19, A). Their general type is that of a cursive alphabet with signs reduced at the top to the same height, and made throughout, as much as possible, equal in breadth. As the occurrence of ancient MSS, and various peculiarities of the letters, such as the formation of wedges out of the Serifs at the ends of the verticals, clearly prove, they were always written with a pen or a brush and ink. Their most important common characteristics are: - (1) The absence of curves at the lower ends of the verticals of A, A, ka, na, &c. (with occasional exceptions for ra); (2) the use of the Serif at the left down-strokes of kha, ga, and śu; (3) the division of the original vertical of na and of its upper bar; (4) the use of a looped na and of a ta without a loop; (5) the transformation of the lower portion of mu into a small knob or loop attached to the left of the letter: (6) the shortening of the vertical of la; (7) the turn of the medial i to the left, which is soon followed by the twist of medial i to the right; (8) the development of curves, open to the left, at the end of the originally horizontal medial u; and (9) the use of a curve, open to the right, for medial r.

While all the alphabets represented in plates IV, V, VI, show these common characteristics or further developments from them, they may be divided, according to other peculiarities, into seven larger groups, most of which again comprise several varieties:—

- (1) The epigraphic North-Indian alphabet of the 4th and 5th centuries, commonly called the Gupta alphabet, which, according to Hoernle's researches. has an eastern and a western variety, among which the second again has two branches, and with the western variety of which the literary alphabet of the Bower MS. and of some other documents from Kashgar is closely connected.
- (2) The acute-angled or Siddhamātṛkā (?) alphabet with wedges at the verticals of the letters, which is first found in the palm-leaves of Horiuzi, and towards the end of the 6th century in the Mahānāman inscription from Gayā and in the Lakkhāmaṇḍal Praśasti.
- (3) The Nāgarī with its long-drawn, tailed, letters, and long top-strokes, the first certain traces of which occur in the 7th century.
- (4) The Sāradā alphabet, a northern variety of the western Gupta type, first found about A. D. 800.
- (5) The eastern Proto-Bengālī alphabet with much rounded, cursive letters, and with hooks or hollow triangles at the tops of the verticals, first traceable in the 11th century.
- (6) The hooked alphabet of Nepāl, [46] which is closely connected with the Proto-Bengālī and occurs in MSS. from the 11th century onwards.

During the 4th and 5th centuries, the rule of these alphabets to the north of the Narmadā is by no means undisputed. In the west we find, as far north as Bijayagadh (Bhartpur), inscriptions in southern characters, or with an admixture of southern letters (see below, § 27). In the 6th and 7th centuries this mixture no longer occurs. Only the so-called "arrow-head" type (see below, § 26, C), the seventh variety on plates IV—VI, which appears in rather late times in Bengal and Nepāl, offers an instance of the importation of a southern script into Northern India.

On the other hand, we meet, from the 7th century, with inscriptions in northern characters first on the coast, in the west in Gujarāt, and in the east even beyond Madras. Documents of this kind appear from the middle of the 8th century also in the central Dekhan, and during the 12th and 13th centuries they penetrate as far as Vijayanagara in the Kanarese country (see below, § 23). But they never come into sole use beyond the northern limit of the Dravidian districts.

The ancient MSS. hitherto found in Kashgar, Japan and Nepāl, the oldest of which probably were written in the 4th century, show only northern letters. The palm-leaf MSS. of Western India, which begin in the 10th century, agree with the inscriptions of the period, and prove that the northern Nāgarī was generally used in Rājputāna, Gujarāt, and in the northern Dekhan as tar as Devagiri (Daulatābād). The gradual advance of the northern characters towards the south probably is explained by the predilection of many southern kings for northern customs, and by the immigration of northern Brahmans, castes of scribes, and Buddhist and Jaina monks, to which facts the statements in various inscriptions and the historical tradition bear witness.

# § 22.—The so-called Gupta alphabet of the 4th and 5th centuries A. D.; Plate IV. A.—Varieties.

The differences between the eastern and western varieties of the so-called Gupta [47] alphabet appear in the signs for la, sa and ha. In the eastern variety the left limb of la (plate IV, 34, I—III, V, VI) is turned sharply downwards; compare the la of the Jangada separate edicts (see above, § 16, C, 35). Further, the base-stroke of sa (IV, 37, I—III, V, VI) is made round and attached as a loop to the slanting central bar. Finally, the base-stroke of ha (IV, 39, I—III, V, VI) is suppressed, and its hook, attached to the vertical, is turned sharply to the left, exactly as in the Jaggayyapeta inscriptions (see above, § 20, C). In the western variety these three letters have the older and fuller forms.

The specimens of the eastern variety in plate IV. have been taken from the oldest Gupta inscription, Harişena's Allahabad Praśasti (cols. I—III), which certainly was incised during the reign of Samudragupta, probably between A. D. 370 and 390, and from the Kahāum Praśasti of A. D. 460 (cols. V, VI) of the time of Skandagupta. It appears, besides, in Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3) Nos. 6—9, 15, 64, 65, 77; in Bhagvānlāl's inscriptions from Nepāļ. Nos. 1—3; and in Cunningham's Gayā inscription of Samvat 64.10 The fact that Fleet's No. 6 is found far west, near Bhilsa in Mālva, may be explained by its having been incised, during an expedition of Candragupta II. to Mālva, at the command of his minister, who calls himself an inhabitant of Pāṭaliputra. Nothing is known regarding the origin of Fleet's No. 77, which is incised on a seal, purchased in Lahore, but possibly manufactured in Eastern India.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Fragments of inscriptions with northern characters of this period, from Valabhī, are preserved in the Museums of Bombay (the Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society) and Rājkoţ. Compare also the sign-manuals on the Gurjara land-grants, J.RAS., 1865, 247 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B.ESIP. 53, and plate 22 a; IA. 18, 161, 172.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> I agree with Hoeenle, who considers certain portions of the new Godfrey collection from Kashgar to be older than the Bower MS.; J.ASB. 66, 258.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> KIELHORN, Report on Sanskrit MSS., 1880-81, 1 ff.; Peterson, Second Report, Appendix I, and Third Report, Appendix I.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> J.RAS. 1895, 247.

<sup>6</sup> Compare B.EISP. 20, 53 ff.; FLEET in EI. 3, 2.

<sup>7</sup> Compare HOEENLE, J.ASB. 60, 81, who mentions sa alone, because his remarks refer also to the type discussed below in § 23.

<sup>8</sup> SB.WA. 122, XI, 32 ff.

<sup>9</sup> IA. 9, 163 ff.; in my opinion the era is not, as FLEET holds in Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), Introduction, 95, 177 ff., that of A. D. 318-19, but one peculiar to the Nepalese, the exact beginning of which has still to be determined.

<sup>10</sup> C.MG. pl. 25; the era may be that of the Guptas.

The western variety of the Gupta alphabet again appears in two forms, a cursive roundhand and an angular, monumental, type. The second form, which shews very characteristic thick top-lines and a hooked ra (33), is represented in plate IV, col. IV, by the alphabet of the Bilsad Prasasti of A. D. 415. Another fine example is found in Fleet's No. 32, from the Meharauli iron pillar near Delhi. Specimens of the cursive form are given in col VII. from the Indor copper-plate of A. D. 465, in col. VIII. from Toramāṇa's Kura inscriptionprobably of the second half of the 5th century, and in col. IX. from the Kārītalāī copper-plate of Jayanātha of Uccakalpa, dated the year 174 or probably A. D. 423.2 The same type is found in Fleer's Nos. 4, 13, 16, 19, 22-31, 36, 61, 63, 66, 67, 69, 74, 76, and in the Jaina votive inscriptions from Mathura, new series, Nos. 38, 39.3 It deserves to be noted that Fleer's No. 13 from Bhitari is found in a district where one would expect the eastern variety. FLEET'S No. 61, the Jaina inscription from Udayagiri in Malva, shows a mixture of the northern characters with southern ones, as it offers throughout A, A, with a curve, and once a southern r. Perhaps the same may be said of FLEET's No. 59, the Bijayagadh inscription from Bhartpur in Rājputāna, where ra shows a curve at the end and medial i and  $\bar{i}$  resemble those in plate III, col. XVI. The characters on the Gupta coins are frequently retrograde, and offer, e. g., the angular ma of the Kusana period.

## B. - Characteristics of the epigraphic Gupta alphabet.

The following particularly important or characteristic peculiarities of the Gupta inscriptions deserve to be noticed in detail: -

- (1) The lower parts of the right-hand verticals of A,  $\overline{A}$ , ga, da, ta, bha and fa are so much elongated, and those of ka and ra remain so long, that these eight signs have about double the length of those without verticals. This is particularly visible in the older stone inscriptions; on the copper-plates they are often shortened.
- The right-hand portion of gha, pa, pha, sa and sa shows an and angle, whereby later the development of tails or verticals on the right of these signs has been caused.
- Since the middle of the 5th century, the lower portion of the left limb of A (1, IX, XI) shows the curve, open to the left, which appears in all the later forms of the letter; the sign of the length of  $\bar{A}$  (2, VII—IX) [48] is attached to the foot of the right vertical.
- (4) In addition to the I of the Kusana period (3, I, V), there occur, owing to the predilection for letters flattened at the top, the also later frequent I with two dots above (3, VII), and that consisting of a short horizontal line with two dots below (3, IX), which latter is the parent of the later southern I (plates VII, VIII, and § 28 below) and of that of the Nagari (below, § 24, A, 4).
- (5) The rudimentary curves at the left end of U,  $\bar{U}$  and O are more fully developed in the 5th century; compare above, § 19, B, 4.
- The guttural na begins to appear instead of the Anusvara before sa and ha (11, VII), perhaps in consequence of the faulty pronunciation, blamed in the Siksās.
- The third horizontal line of ja (14, I-III, VII, VIII) begins to slamt downwards, and occasionally shows a curve at the end, whereby later the new forms of cols. XXI-XXIII. are caused.

<sup>1</sup> IA. 18, 225.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to Fleet, IA. 19, 227 f., the kings of Uccakalpa probably dated according to the Cedi or Kalacuri era of A. D. 249.

<sup>#</sup> J.ASB. 53, pl. 2—4; J.RAS., 1889, pl. 1—4, and p. 34 ff., and 1898, pl. 2. <sup>8</sup> EI. 2, 210.

<sup>5</sup> HAUG. Wedischer Accent, 64.

- (8) The palatal  $\tilde{n}i$  (16, I, II; 42, I, VI, VII, XI) is frequently made cursive and round, and is occasionally laid on the side in order to save space, compare also  $j\tilde{n}ah$ , plate III, 40, XIV. But older, angular, forms likewise occur (42, V).
  - (9) The ta (17, I-III, IX) is often flattened down at the top.
- (10) The na of 21, I, II, shows a little stroke at the right end, caused by an inexact formation of the hook on the right, and in the second sign a cursive loop on the left; in 21, III, the letter has been laid on the side and somewhat resembles the Nagari na.
- (11) The tha (23, I, V—IX) is mostly elliptical or flattened on the right, and a cross-bar often replaces the dot in the centre: but the old form likewise survives (23, II, III).
- (12) The ya (32, I—IX) is mostly tripartite, but sometimes, particularly in ye, yai and yo, transitional forms with the loop, like the later ones in 32, XIII, XVI, appear, which lead up to the bipartitite  $ya.^2$  The oldest instance of the independent looped ya is found in Fleet's No. 59 of A. D. 371, but the Kuṣana inscriptions show the looped subscript ya even earlier (see above, § 19, B, 12).
- (13) The left limb of sa (38, I—III, V, VI, VIII) often becomes a loop, as happens already in some Kuşana inscriptions (§ 19, B, 16). A substitute for the loop is the triangle (probably giving the outlines of a wedge), which occurs in the three most ancient inscriptions from Nepāl; compare the later sa of 38, XII. But the older hook is equally common.
  - (14) The rare [a (40, I-III) is found also in Fleet's No. 67, line 1.
- (15) The signs for the medial vowels agree in many particulars with those of the Kuṣana period. But the open semicircle for  $\bar{a}$  in  $t\bar{a}$  (17, II), which is found also in  $t\bar{a}$ , is an innovation. Further, the medial i, for instance, of khi (8, III, VI, IX), is drawn further to the left than in the earlier inscriptions. In some inscriptions like Mathurā, new series, Nos. 38, 39, the medial  $\bar{i}$  consists merely of a curve, going to the right, though the form with two horns (as in  $d\bar{i}$ , 24, I), and a looped one (as in  $bh\bar{i}$ , 30, IV), are more common. Medial u is mostly represented by the still used curve, which in tu (33, III, VI) appears abnormally at the end of tu; but in tu (8, II, VI), tu,  (16) The desire to save space causes the cursive  $\vec{n}a$ , ta (see sta, 45, IX) and tha (see  $sth\bar{a}$ , 45, V; stha, 46, IX) to be laid on the side, in case they form the second elements of ligatures. From the 5th century, rya (45, VII) is expressed by a full ra with a subscript ya.
- (17) The first certain Virāma (see ddham, 43, VII), consisting of a horizontal stroke above the small final, dates likewise from the 5th century; the northern Jihvāmūlīya ( $\hbar ka$ , 46, II) and the Upadhmānīya ( $\hbar p\bar{a}$ , 46, III) occur already in the 4th century.

## C. — The Gupta alphabet in manuscripts.

Among the types of the Bower MS., which belongs, according to Hoernle's and my own opinion, to the 5th century, I have given [49] in plate VI, cols. I—IV, only the alphabet of the portion which Hoernle marks A, since the published parts of his B. and C. are not sufficiently extensive for a paleographic enquiry. Its characters differ very little from those of the epigraphic documents of the Gupta period, especially from the copper-plates. The Serifs at the tops of the vertical strokes, however, are made more carefully and nearly throughout worked

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare facsimile in Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), No. 61. 2 J.ASB. 60, 88 ff.

<sup>3</sup> J.ASB. 60, 92 f.; WZKM. 5, 104 f. The discovery of an inscription of the 7th century with mostly tripartite ya, EI. 4, 29, makes a modification of HOERNLE'S argumentation necessary, but does not invalidate his final result.

up with the latter into real wedges. If a letter like gha (plate VI, 18, I-IV) has several upstrokes, the Scrifs are added regularly to all of them. Similarly, the lower ends of vertical strokes more regularly bear Serifs or are converted into wedges or little buttons. The greater regularity of the writing is what may be expected in a good MS., the material of which offers fewer difficulties than stone or copper. The invariable use of the Sery's has led to the formation of the ka (15, IV) with the loop on the left1 (compare 15, I, III), which appears occasionally in the Bower MS., but is noticeable only later, since A. D. 588-89 (see plate 1V, 7, XIII), in the inscriptions. Further, the Bower MS. offers in rare cases, e. g. in prayojayet (fol. 31x, 11), an archaic form of the bipartite ya. Finally, it makes us acquainted with some signs which, owing to the rarity of the sounds expressed by them, cannot occur frequently in the inscriptions and hitherto have not been traced in those of the 4th and 5th centuries. To these belong the long  $\overline{I}$  (4, I), in which the upper and lower dots of the ancient sign (compare plate VI, 4, V, VII) have been converted into a straight stroke, and further the short R, which clearly consists of a ra and a medial r (compare above, § 1; and below, § 24, A, 7), also the AU (14, I, II), which fully agrees with the epigraphic character of A. D. 532 (plate IV, 6, X), and the subscript r of nr (34, III) which consists of two r, placed horizontally side by side.

## § 23. — The acute-angled and Nagari types; Plates IV, V, VI.

About the beginning of the sixth century we find in the northern inscriptions, both of Eastern and Western India (plate IV, cols. X-XII),2 distinct beginnings of a new development, which first leads to the forms of the Gaya inscription of A. D. 588-89 (plate IV, cols. XIII, XIV) and of the probably not much later Lakkhāmanlal Praśasti (plate IV, cols. XV, XVI).3 Their chief characteristic is that the letters slope from the right to the left, and show acute angles at the lower or at the right ends, as well as that the tops of the vertical or slanting lines invariably bear small wedges, and their ends either show the same ornaments or protuberances on the right. These peculiarities are observable in a large number of inscriptions of the next four centuries, and it seems to me advisable to class the characters of the whole group as those of the "acute-angled alphabet." Formerly the term "nail-headed" was frequently applied to them. Of late this has been given up and no new generic name has been proposed. Thus FLEET says, in his edition of the Gaya inscription,5 only that the letters belong to the Possibly the Indian name may have been Siddhamātṛkā northern class of alphabets. (lipi). For Beruni states that an alphabet [50] of this name was used in his time (about A. D. 1030) in Kashmir and in Benares, while the Nagari was current in Malva. If the usual writing of Benares resembled that of Kashmir, it cannot have had the long horizontal top-strokes which always characterise the Nagari. Beruni's note is, however, too brief and vague for a definite settlement of the question.

The two inscriptions, mentioned above, which, like the other contemporaneous cognate documents, are connected with the western Gupta alphabet, mark the first step in the development of the acute angled alphabet during the sixth century. And to the same subdivision belong, among the MSS., the Horiuzi palm-leaves, which according to the Japanese tradition certainly existed in the second half of the 6th century.7 If fourteen years ago, when I wrote my paleographical essay on these leaves in the Anecdota Oxoniensia, the facsimiles of the Gayā and Lakkhāman al inscriptions had been accessible, it would have sufficed to compare their letters in order to prove the correctness of the statements of the Japanese.

<sup>1</sup> Anecdota Oxoniensia, Aryan Series, 1, 3, 76.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare also the facsimiles in Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), Nos. 20, 24, 33, 34, 33, 37, 47, 51, 70, 75, and of the seal of Kumāragupta II., J.ASB. 58, 84.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Compare also the facsimiles in Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), Nos. 72, 76, 78, 79, 80. 5 Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), 274. See, e. g., Top, Annals of Rajasthan, 1, 700 ff., Madras edition.

India, 1, 173 (SACHAU).

<sup>7</sup> Anec. Oxo n., Ary. Series, 1, 3, 64.

The characters of Amśuvarman's inscription of A. D. 635 (plate IV, col. XVII) and of the nearly contemporaneous Aphsad Praśasti of Adityasena (plate IV, cols. XVIII, XIX) show the further progress of the acute-angled alphabet during the 7th century. It must, however, be noted that Amśuvarman's inscriptions and other Nepalese documents of the same time have the round sa and thus are allied with the eastern Gupta character, while the Aphsad Praśasti and its allies from India proper are connected with the western variety of the old northern alphabet. Fleet calls this second variety, on account of the more marked twist of the lower ends of the strokes, "the Kuṭila variety of the Magadha alphabet of the 7th century." I feel disinclined to adopt the term "Kuṭila," which was first used by Prinsep, and since has been employed by many other writers, because it is based on an erroneous rendering of the expression kuṭila akṣara in the Deval Praśasti. I would remove it from the paleographic terminology. Kielhorn likewise avoids it in his paleographic remarks on various inscriptions of this period.

During the 8th—10th centuries, the development of the acute-angled or Siddhamāṭrkā alphabet progresses more and more in the direction of its successor, the Nāgarī alphabet, which latter in its old North-Indian form is distinguished merely by the substitution of straight top-strokes for the wedges on the verticals. Documents with a mixture of wedges and straight top-strokes are also found; and occasionally it becomes difficult to decide how a particular inscription is to be classed.

To this third and last variety<sup>6</sup> of the acute-angled alphabet belong the characters of the Multāī copper-plates (plate IV, col. XX) of A. D. 708-709,<sup>7</sup> of the Dighvā-Dubaulī plate, probably of A. D. 761 (plate IV, col. XXI),<sup>8</sup> of the Gwalior inscription of A. D. 876 (plate V, col. II), and of the Ghosrāva inscription of the 9th or 10th century (plate V, col. VI),<sup>9</sup> as well as, among the MSS., those of the Cambridge MS. No. 1049 (plate VI, col. VII), dated in the year 252,<sup>10</sup> probably of Aṃśuvarman's era of A. D. 594,<sup>11</sup> or in A. D. 846. An intermediate position between the acute-angled and the Nāgarī alphabets, is occupied by the letters of the Pehca Praśasti of about A. D. 900 (plate V, col. III), of the Deval Praśasti of A. D. 992 or 993 (plate V, col. VIII) and of the copper-plates of the Paramāra king Vākpati II. of A. D. 974 (plate V, col. X).<sup>12</sup> They, no doubt, show the wedges; but these are so broad that they produce the same effect as the long straight top-strokes, and that, e. g., the open tops of A, Ā, gha, pa, &c., are closed, just as in the Nāgarī inscriptions. Specimens of the mixture of wedges and straight top-strokes, mentioned above, are found in the Rādhanpur and Vaṇī-Diṇḍorī copper-plates of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king [51] Govinda III. of A. D. 807-808 (plate V, col. IV),<sup>13</sup> and the Harṣa inscription of the Cāhamāna Vigraha II. of A. D. 973 (plate V, col. IX).<sup>14</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare also the facsimiles in IA. 9, 163 ff., Nos. 4—10, 12; Bendall, Journey in Nepāl, 72, Nos. I, 2; and HOERNLE'S remarks in J.ASB. 60, 85.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), 201, 284; EI. 3, 328, note 1. 

<sup>5</sup> J.ASB. 6, 778, pl. 41.

<sup>\*</sup> EI. 1, 76. In confirmation of my explanation of the phrase kuţilānyaksarāni viduṣā, "by him who knows crooked letters," i. e., letters difficult to read, I would point to Vikramānkacarita, 18, 42, where we have the statement that queen Sūryamatī did not allow herself to be cheated kāyasthaiļi kuṭ.ta-l pibhiḥ, "by writers using crooked alphabets."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Compare his remarks on inscriptions of this class, IA. 17, 308; 19, 55; 20, 123; 21, 169; EI. 1, 179, 2, 117, 160.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Compare, for this and the preceding varieties, the facsimiles at IA. 2, 258; 5, 180; 9, 174 ff., Nos. 11, 13, 14, 15; 10, 31; 17, 310; 19, 58; BENDALL, Journey in Nepāl, pl. 10, 11, 13; EI. 1, 179; 4, 29; C.ASR. 17, pl. 9; and the autotypes of coins in C.CMI. pl. 3, Nos. 7—14; pl. 6, No. 20; and pl. 7.

<sup>7</sup> According to Firet, IA. 18, 281, "transitional type from which the North-Indian Nagari alphabet was soon after developed."

<sup>\*</sup> According to Fleet, IA. 15, 106, "North-Indian Nagari." Compare IA. 17, 308.

<sup>10</sup> BENDALL, Cat. Cambr. Buddh. MSS. from Nepal, XLI. ff.; Anec. Oxon., Ary. Series, 3, 71 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> S. Lévi, JA. 1834, II, 55 ff.

<sup>13</sup> IA. 6, 59; 11, 158; compare also facsimiles in El. 3, 103, and IA. 14, 200.

<sup>14</sup> Compare also facsimile, IA. 16, 174,

The last-mentioned two inscriptions are, however, by no means the oldest documents, in which Nagari letters occur. The first undoubtedly genuine specimens1 are found in the signatures of the Gurjara princes on the copper-plates of Kaira (of A. D. 628 and 633), of Dabhoi (A. D. 642), of Nausārī (A. D. 705), and of Kāvī (A. D. 736),2 the texts of which are written in a southern alphabet. In the first-mentioned three signatures, the Nagari letters are in the minority, as most of the signs show either more archaic northern or southern forms. Only in the fourth signature the Nagari is used throughout and is fully developed. But the most ancient document, written throughout in Nāgarī, is the Sāmāngad grant of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Dantidurga of A. D. 754 (plate IV, col. XXII).3 Much of the same type are the characters of the Kanheri inscriptions Nos. 15 and 43 (plate V, col. V),4 which were respectively incised in A. D. 851 and 877 during the reigns of the Silāhāra princes Pullaśakti and Kapardin II.

The Samangad and Kanheri inscriptions, together with some others of the 9th century,5 show the archaic variety of the southern Nagari, the fully developed form of which is exhibited in the copper-plates of Kauthem (plate V, col. XVII),6 which were incised during the reign of the Cālukya king Vikramāditya V. in A. D. 1009-10. The southern Nāgarī, of the 8th-11th centuries, which differs from its northern sister of the same period chiefly by the want of the small tails slanting to the right from the ends of the verticals, and in general by stiffer forms, besides occurs in numerous inscriptions of the Silāhāras and Yādavas from the Marāṭhā country and the Konkan, as well as of a Ratta prince from the Belgaum collectorate.7 Its latest development during the 13th-16th centuries is found in the inscriptions of the kings of Vijayanagara or Vidyānagara in the Kanarese country.8 It still survives in the Balbodh or Devanāgarī of the Marāthā districts, and in Southern India it has produced the so-called Nandināgarī which is still used for MSS.9

In Northern and Central India, the Nagari appears first on the copper-plate of the Mahārāja Vināyakapāla of Mahodaya (plate IV, col. XXIII),10 probably of A. D. 794, which however exhibits some archaisms and peculiarities in the signs for kha, ga, and na, found also in later inscriptions from Eastern India. The fact that an earlier inscription from the Kanarese country, the incision of which is due to a Brahman from Northern India (see El. 3, 1 ff.), shows a mixture of Nāgarī and acute-angled letters, makes it probable that the northern Nāgarī was in use at least since the beginning of the 8th century. From the next century, we have only a few inscriptions in northern Nagari.11 But after A. D. 950 their number increases, and in the 11th century the script becomes paramount in nearly all the districts north of the Narmadā.

The characters of the Sīyadoņī inscriptions from Central India (plate V, col. VII), the dates of which run from A. D. 968, and those of the copper-plate of the first Caulukya of Gujarāt, incised in A. D. 987 (plate V, col. XI),12 show the forms of the northern Nāgarī of the 10th century. The copper-plates of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa (Gāhaḍavāla) king Madanapāla of Kanauı in Northern India, dated A. D. 1097 (plate V, col. XII), the Udaypur Prasasti of the Paramāras of Malva (probable date about A. D. 1060) in the west of Central India (plate V, col. XIII), the Nanyaurā plates of the Candella Devavarman of A. D. 1050 (plate V, col. XIV) and of

<sup>1</sup> The genuineness of the earlier Umeta and Bagumra plates (IA. 7, 63, 17, 195) is disputed (IA. 18, 91 ff.), their Nagarı letters have been given in Anec. Oxon., Ary. Seii.s, 1, 3, pl. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See the facsim; les, J RAS. 1835, 247 ff.; EI 5, 40; IA. 5, 113; 13, 78; and the remarks in SB.WA. 135, 8, 2.

<sup>4</sup> IA. 13, 2:5; 20, 421. <sup>8</sup> IA. 11, 105.

<sup>5</sup> Compare, e. g., the Ambarnath inscription, J.BBRAS. 9, 219; 12, 334; IA. 19, 242. 7 Compare also the facsimiles, IA. 7, 304; 9, 32; 14, 141; 17, 122; J.BBRAS. 13, 1; 15, 386; EL. 3, 272, 360 f.,

a Compare the facsimiles, EI. 3, 38 f., 152 ff.; B.ESIP. pl. 30, and the alphabet, pl. 20.

B.ESIP. 52 (where the Nandinagarı is derived erroneously from the Siddhamatrka), and pl. 21.

<sup>11</sup> see the facsimile, IA. 13, 64. 10 IA, 15, 140,

<sup>12</sup> See above, § 21, p. 44, note 2; compare also the facsimiles at IA. 12, 250, 263; 16, 202; EL. 1, 122; J.BBRAS. 18, 239.

the Kalacuri Karna of Tripura, dated A. D. 1042 (plate V, col. XV), both from the eastern part of Central India, and the plates of the Caulukya Bhīma I. of Gujarāt, dated A. D. 1029 (plate V, col. XVI), give specimens of the northern Nāgarī of the 11th century. Finally, the northern Nāgarī of A. D. 1100—1207 is illustrated by the alphabets of a plate of Jayaccandra, the last Rāṣṭrakūṭa (Gāhadavāla) king of Kanauj, dated A. D. 1175 (plate V, col. XX), of the plates of the last Canlukya of Gujarāt, Bhīma II., dated A. D. 1199 and 1207 [52] (plate V, col. XXI), of the plate of the Paramāra Udayavarman of Mālva, dated A. D. 1200 (plate V, col. XXII), and of the Ratnapur stone inscription from the reign of the Kalacuri Jājalla of Tripura, dated A. D. 1114 (plate V, col. XXIII).

With the characters of these Nāgarī inscriptions, agree those of the now numerous ancient palm-leaf MSS. from Gujarāt, Rājputāna and the northern Dekhan, the dates of which run certainly from the 11th, and possibly from the 10th century. Cols. XV—XVII. of plate VI. exhibit their alphabet chiefly according to Leumann's photographs and tracings of the Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣyaṭīkā, dated A. D. 1081, together with some supplements from the Royal Asiatic Society's Gaṇaratnamahodadhi, of A. D. 1229.³ But a number of MSS. from Nepāl, belonging to the 11th and 12th centuries, show the northern Nāgarī of the preceding century. And col. XIII. of plate VI. offers a specimen from No. 866, the oldest Cambridge MS. of this class, which is dated A. D. 1008.⁴ Of the same type is the alphabet of plate VI, col. XIV, taken from the reproduction of col. 1 of WYLIE's copy of the Vajracchedikā in Anecdota Oxoniensia, Aryan Series, 1, 1, plate 4.

# § 24. — Details of the changes in the acute-angled and the Nāgarī alphabets.<sup>5</sup> A. — The Mātṛkās.

Among the numerous changes, which the letters of the acute-angled and Nagarī scripts undergo in course of time, the following more important ones, affecting the Mātṛkās or radical signs, deserve special mention:—

(1) The signs for E, gha, ca, tha, dha, pa, ba, ma, ya, la, va, sa and sa, develop gradually,—the later the more distinctly,—shorter or longer tails, which first slant off towards the right below the bottom-line of the letters, but later, in the Nāgarī, become vertical strokes, except in the case of E. [53] From the 10th century similar pendent lines appear in the middle of cha (plate V, 16, II, III, &c.), and of dha (plate V, 23, II), of da (plate V, III, &c.) and of da (plate V, 42, II—IV, &c.), which the Nāgarī, too, retains in da and da and converts into a medial vertical in the case of da. In the acute-angled script, da, da, da, da, and da frequently show on the right a small horn-like protuberance or an elongation of the vertical, which, owing to the flattening of the tops, the Nāgarī again discards except in the case of dha. Both the last-mentioned peculiarities are due to the circumstance that the writers drew the left and right portions of the letters separately and neglected to join carefully the two halves. In course of time these irregularities became characteristic features of most of the letters.

<sup>1</sup> See above, § 21, p. 4, note 2; compare also the facsimiles at IA. 6, 53, 54; 8, 40; 12, 126, 202; 15, 36; 16, 208; 18, 34; EI. 1. 2 6, 316; 3, 50.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See above, § 21 p. 44, note 2; compare, e. g., the facsimiles at IA. 11, 72; 17, 226; 18, 130.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Kielhorn, Report on Sanskrit MSS. for 1880-81, pp. VII, 37; J.RAS, 1895, 247, 504; compare also the facsimiles, Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 1, 2, 3, 58; Cat. Berlin Sanskr. und Prakr. Hdschft., Band 2, 3, pl. 1. In the marginal glosses of the Višesavašyaka and other MSS., frequently appear other cursive alphabets; see Leumann's edition, pl. 35.

<sup>4</sup> BINDALL, Cat. Buddh. Sanskrit MSS. from Nepāl, pp. XXIV f., 1 f.; compare also the facsimile, Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 13. According to S. v. Oldenburg (letter of 7th April, 1897), the alphabet of these Nepalese MSS. is the so-called Laūjā script, in which is written a complete MS. of the Saddharmapundarīka, preserved in St. Petersburg.

<sup>5</sup> Compare, for this paragraph, Bendall, Cat. Cambridge Buddhist MSS. from Nepāl, XLIII—LI; Anec. Oxon., Aryan Scries, 1, 3, 73—87.

<sup>6</sup> Anec. Oxon., Aryan Series, 1, 3, 70.

- (2) In consequence of the elongation of the ends of the wedges and of the use of long straight top-strokes, the heads of A, A, gha; pa, pha, ma, ya, sa, and sa are gradually closed, both in the acute-angled and the Nāgarī scripts.<sup>1</sup>
- (3) The lower portion of the left half of A and  $\overline{A}$  almost invariably consists of a curve. open towards the left, which first appears occasionally in the Kuṣana inscriptions (see above. § 19, B, 1) and later regularly on the Uccakalpa plates (plate IV, 1, IX). It is preserved in the Bālbodh of the Marāṭhās and is common in the Bombay editions of Sanskrit works. In other late specimens of the Nāgarī, it is replaced by two slanting strokes (plate V, 1, 2, XVI), to which a third, a remnant of an earlier wedge at the foot of the vertical, is added lower down. This form is the parent of the A, A, used in the Benares and Calcutta prints. Up to the 8th century, the long A is invariably differentiated by the addition of a curve to the right end of A. Later, its mark is a downward stroke, which is attached either to the right of the top (e. g., plate IV, 2, XXI) or to the middle (plate IV, 2, XXII) and thus reoccupies the same positions which the corresponding horizontal bar has in the Aśoka edicts.<sup>2</sup> In the MSS., the downstroke at the top is found even earlier (plate VI, 2, VI).
- (4) The sign for I is mostly derived from the Gupta form of Indor (plate IV, 3, VII) by the substitution of a curve for the third dot (plate IV, 3, XI—XXIII; V, 3, II—IV, &c.; VI, 3, V—IX). But in addition there is (plate V, 3, V, XII, XIII, &c.; VI, 3, XII—XV) a derivative from the I of the Uccakalpa plates (IV. 3, IX), in which the upper dot is replaced by a straight line; and this I is the parent of the modern Devanāgarī I, in which the two lower dots have been changed into curves and finally have been connected. In Jaina MSS., the I with two dots above and a curve below occurs occasionally as late as the 15th and 16th centuries. The unique early forms of the long  $\overline{I}$  (plate VI, 4, V, VII), as well as their later development (plate VI, 4, XV), which has followed the analogy of I, deserve attention.
- (5) U and  $\bar{U}$  invariably show at the lower end a tail, drawn towards the left, which in course of time is developed more and more fully.
- (6) The curve of R, attached to the right of the ra, becomes very shallow and long in the Horinzi palm-leaves (plate VI, 7, V), and this shallow curve is the precursor of the vertical line of the later palm-leaf MSS. of Western India (plate VI, 7, XV—XVII). In the Cambridge MS. No. 1049 (plate VI, 7, VII) and in No. 1691, the r-curve is attached to the lower end of the ra.
- (7) Among the signs for  $\bar{R}$ ,  $\bar{L}$ , and  $\bar{L}$ , which are first traceable in the MSS; of this period (plate VI, 8—10, V, VII, X), the long  $\bar{R}$  is clearly formed by the addition of a second f-curve to the short  $\bar{R}$ . In the Cambridge MSS. Nos. 1049 and 1691,  $\bar{L}$  is represented by a cursive southern la (see plate VII, 34, VI—IX), just as the oldest medial l in k? (VII, 42, XIV) is identical with another form of la; and the long  $\bar{L}$  is derived from the short vowel by the addition of a second la, turned in the opposite direction. In the  $\bar{L}$  and  $\bar{L}$  of the Horizzi palm-leaves (plate VI, 9, 10, V), the la has been turned round towards the left; and respectively one and two r-curves have been attached to the foot. And the combination l(a)-r remains [54] also in the Nāgarī both of the palm-leaves from Western India (plate VI, 9, 10, XV) and of our days, the reason being no doubt the pronunciation lr, which is customary both there and in other parts of India. These paleographical facts agree with the tradition of the Chinese Buddhists, who, as S. Lévi has discovered, ascribe the invention of the signs for the liquid vowels to a South-Indian, either to Sarvavarman, the minister of the Andhra king Sātavāhana, or to the great Buddhist teacher Nāgārjuna.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See above, § 23, page 50.

<sup>8</sup> Communication by letter.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See above, § 16, D, 1, 2; and plate II, 2, II—K;

- (8) E and AI invariably turn the base of the triangle upwards, and this innovation is found already in the inscriptions with transitional forms (plate IV, 5, X, XI).
- (9) Ka shows almost invariably on the left a loop, caused by the connection of the end of the bent cross-bar with the Serif or wedge at the foot of the vertical, except in combinations with the subscribed vowels u and r (see, e. g., plate IV, 7, XIV; V, 10, III; VI, 15, XVI, XVII) or with other consonants (see, e. g., plate IV, 41, XVI; V, 43, II, III; VI, 49, V, XV, XVII). In the Nagari inscriptions, the looped form occurs, however, not rarely also in the latter cases (see, e. g., plate IV, 7, XX, XXII; V, 43, VII, X-XIII).
- (10) The loop or triangle of kha, which represents the ancient circle (plate II, 10, VI, and above, § 3. A. 19), stands, in all the greatly varying forms of the letters, at the left of the verticals. The very considerable differences in the shape of the left limb are partly due to the flattening of the top of the letter and still more to the various ornamental changes of the wedge, which first was added to the lower end of the ancient hook.
- (11) The dot to the right of na, which is so characteristic in the modern Devanāgarī letter, appears already on the Benares copper-plate of Karna of A. D. 1042 in the word jangama (line 11, end),2 while our plates offer only an example from a much later document (see plate V, 14, XIX). The dot may possibly have been derived from the protuberance, which is often found at the end of the top-stroke of the letter (see, e. g., plate V, 14, V, VI, VIII).
- The central bar of ja first is made to slant downwards (plate IV, 14, XXI-XXIII, &c.) and then changed into a vertical (V, 17, XIII, &c.; VI, 22, XII, &c.). At the same time, the upper bar becomes the top-stroke of the letter, and the lowest is gradually converted into a double curve.
- (13) The right limb of the independent na of the Horiuzi palm-leaves (VI, 24, V) is turned upwards, and the same form occurs occasionally in ligatures. But in the latter the sign is usually laid on its side, its angles are converted into curves and the right limb is attached to the end of the greatly shortened vertical. Hence it often looks like na (see plate IV, 16, XI, &c.; V, 19, IV, V, &c.). In the Nagari of the 11th and later centuries, the subscript na is attached to the left limb of ja (plate V, 19, XII - XIV; VI, 24, XVI), and the cursive jna of the modern Devanāgarī, which the Hindus now consider to be a Mātṛkā, is due to a simplification of this form.
- (14) Since the 6th century, a wedge is often placed above the lingual ta (plate IV, 17, XVII; V, 20, II, VI; VI, 25, VI); and in the Nagari a horizontal line with a short vertical or slanting stroke appears in the place of the wedge (plate IV, 17, XXI, XXII; V, 20, XIII, &c.; VI, 25, XV).
- (15) Similar additions appear above the lingual tha since the 10th century (plate V, 21, X, &c.; VI, 26, XV).
- (16) Since the 9th century, the round-backed lingual do of the southern alphabets, ending with a curve open to the left, comes into use (plate V, 22, II, VIII, &c.).
- (17) The suppression of the original base-stroke of the lingual na occurs in ligatures (nda, plate IV, 21, XIX) since the 7th century, and in the uncombined sign since the 8th century (plate V, 24, III); compare also above, § 22, B, 10, and plate IV, 21, III. The sign soon after assumes the modern form and consists of a straight top-stroke with three lines hanging down from it (plate V, 24, VII, &c.; VI, 29, XV, &c.).

<sup>1</sup> Am exception is, e. g., the Jhalrapatan inscription, IA.V, 180, which shows throughout the old dagger-shaped form,
<sup>2</sup> EI. 2, 297.

- (18) The modern form of ta with the vertical on the right, which occurs already in the Aśoka edicts, reappears in the 8th century (plate IV, 22, XXI) and becomes the regular one in the 10th century.
- (19) The modern form of tha, which has been derived from the notched one of the 7th century (plate IV, 23, XVII), is found already in the inscriptions of the same period (plate IV, 23, XVIII, &c.).
- (20) [55] In the 7th century, the lower end of da is more clearly defined by a Serif (plate IV, 24, XVII, &c.), which soon after is changed into the characteristic tail of the modern letter.
- (21) Already in the 7th century, the right side of na becomes occasionally a vertical, to the left of which the loop is attached (plate IV, 26, XVIII, XIX); compare also below. § 30.
- (22) On the transformation of pha by the development of a central vertical (see above, under 1), the curve of aspiration is attached first to the top of the new sign (plate IV, 28, XXII; V, 31, III, &c.). But in the 11th century it sinks lower down (plate V, 31, XII), and it occupies already in the 12th century the position which it has in the modern Devanāgarī letter (plate V, 31, XX—XXIII). Retrograde archaic forms, like those in plate V, 31, II, XIV, are, however, net rare. Their occurrence has probably to be explained by the influence of the popular cursive alphabets.
- (23) As va was very generally pronounced ba, the ancient sign for ba was lost in Northern, Central and Western India, and it was replaced by va in the inscriptions of the 7th and later centuries (plate IV, 29, XX; V, 32, II, &c.). In the MSS, the substitution occurs even earlier (plate VI, 37, V, VI). A new ba, consisting of va with a dot in the centre of the loop, occurs since the 11th century (plate V, 32, XVI), and this form is the parent of the modern Devanāgarī letter.
- (24) The left limb of bha, mostly an inverted wedge with the point towards the right, is frequently changed into a triangle, open at the apex, from which the lower portion of the original vertical hangs down (plate IV, 30, XIX, &c.; V, 33, II, &c.). The modern Devanāgarī bha appears in the 12th century (plate V, 33, XX, &c.) and seems to be derived from the form with the wedge, for which latter a Serif was substituted.
- (25) Since the 8th century, ma usually has on the left a cursive loop (plate IV, 31, XX, XXI), which in the MSS is mostly filled in with ink (plate VI, 39, XV—XVII).
- (26) Both the MSS., and most inscriptions, with the exception of one from Udaypur (above, page 48, note 3) and some from Nepāl (page 50), offer exclusively the looped or the bipartite ya, which latter occurs already in the inscriptions of the Kuşana period, and has been derived from the looped form. In the Nepalese inscriptions of the 7th century, which show the eastern sa, we find a tripartite ya with a small circle at the top of the first upstroke (plate IV, 32, XVII); the Udaypur inscription has both the ordinary tripartite ya of the Gupta period, and also the bipartite letter.
- (27) The right extremity of the wedge at the lower end of ra is often greatly elongated in the inscriptions of the 7th and later centuries (plate IV, 33, XVIII—XXI, &c.), and sometimes only the outlines of the wedge are marked. These forms are the precursors of the modern tailed ra.
- (28) Since the 7th century, we find a cursive śa (plate IV, 36, XVIII; 42, XIX; V, 39, II, III, &c.; VI, 44, XV—XVII), the left half of which has been turned into a loop with a little tail on the right.

<sup>3</sup> J.ASB. 60, 85.

#### B. - Medial vowels and so forth.

- (1) Medial  $\bar{a}$ , e, o, au, as well as one of the Mātrās of ai, are placed very frequently above the line, and are then, particularly in the stone inscriptions, treated more or less ornamentally (see, e, g, plate IV, cols. XIII—XVIII). More rarely, medial z and  $\bar{z}$  are treated in the same way.
- (2) The tails of the curves of medial i and i are regularly drawn down low, respectively to the left and the right of the Mātṛkā, while the differences in the curves at the top disappear. These forms lead up to the i and i of the modern Devanāgarī.
- (3) Medial  $\bar{u}$  is expressed very frequently by the initial  $\bar{U}$  of the period (plate IV, 30, XII, XIV, XVI, XX; VI, 44, VI). [56] But an older form, found, e. g., in  $p\bar{u}$  (IV, 27, VI), is also common and appears to be the parent of the modern  $\bar{u}$ , which occurs already in the western palm-leaf MSS. (see  $p\bar{u}$ , plate VI, 35, XVI).
- (4) Since the 7th century, 1—first on the Banskherā plate of Harṣa, —the Jihvāmūlīya is occasionally expressed by a cursive sign, consisting of a loop under the wedge of ka (plate V, 47, III).
- (5) Since the 7th century, the Upadhmānīya is occasionally expressed by a curve open above, with curled ends and sometimes with a dot in the centre. This sign is attached to the left side of the Mātṛkā (plate IV, 46, XXIII; V, 48, VII). It seems to be derived from a form like that in plate VII, 46, IV.
- (6) In the older inscriptions, the Virāma is still frequently placed above the vowelless consonant, for which invariably a final form is used; and it receives a tail, which is drawn downwards to the right of the Mātṛkā (see, e. g., plate IV, 22, XIV). But even more commonly it stands below the consonant, and it occurs in this position already in the inscriptions with transitional forms (plate IV, 22, XI).<sup>2</sup>

#### C. — The ligatures.

- (1) Both in the inscriptions and in the MSS of the 6th and later centuries, we find occasionally ligatures, in which the second consonant is placed to the right of the first, instead of below it (see, e. g., plate IV, 45, XI; V, 47, II; VI, 51, VI).<sup>3</sup>
- (2) For the stone inscriptions of the acute-angled alphabet, the subscript ya frequently is made ornamental and drawn far to the left. Since the 7th century, and occasionally even earlier, the right-hand upstroke of ya is drawn up as far as the upper line of the whole sign (see, e. g., plate IV, 46, VIII, XIX; 43, 45, XIII; VI, 51, VI).
- (3) Ra, being the first part of a compound consonant, usually stands above the line and is expressed by a wedge, or by an angle or a curve open to the right. But in rma the left side of ma is shortened, and the top of the wedge, which is placed on this shortened line, does not protrude above the upper line (plate VI, 49, VI). Similar depressions of the superscribed ra are found in connection with other consonants in the Aphsad inscription, on Harsa's copperplates, and in some MSS. (plate VI, 51, XIII, XIV). Until the 9th century, rya is often expressed by a full ra with a subscribed ya (see, e. g., plate IV, 44, XVIII; 45, VII; and compare EI, 3, 103).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the facsimile of the Jhalrapatan inscription, IA. 5, 180; see also IA. 13, 162.

This is the regular form since the 9th century.
 Anec. Oxon., Aryan Series, 1, 3, 87.
 FLEET, Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), 202; KIELBORN, EI. 1, 179 f.

## § 25. — The Sāradā alphabet; Plates V. and VI.

- A. The Sāradā script,¹ which is easily recognised as a descendant of the western Gupta alphabet, appears since about A. D. 800 in Kashmīr and in the north-eastern Panjāb (Kāngra and Chambā). The oldest known Sāradā inscriptions are the two Baijnāth Praśastis from Kīragrāma (Kāngra), dated A. D. 804; see plate V, col. I. Not much later are the coins of the Varma dynasty of Kashmīr, where the Sāradā forms are likewise fully developed.² And it is not improbable that the Bakhshāli MS., found in the Yusufzai district (plate VI, col. VIII), belongs to the same or even a somewhat earlier period.³ The third specimen of the 'Sāradā in plate VI, col. IX, which ultimately is derived from Burkhard's plate I. in his edition of the Kashmīrian Sākuntala,⁴ dates perhaps only from the 16th or 17th century; it has been given merely because at present no reproductions of more ancient MSS. are accessible.⁵ In consequence of the frequent emigrations of the travel-loving Kashmīrian Pandits, Sāradā MSS. are found in many towns of North-Western India and further east in Benares, and marginal closses in Sāradā characters are found even in ancient Nāgarī MSS. from Western India.⁶ A [57] modern cursive variety of the Sāradā is the so-called Ṭakkarī or Ṭākarī' of the Dogrās in Jammū and the neighbourhood, which of late has been imported also into Kashmīr.
- B. A general characteristic of the Sāradā of all periods is found in the stiff, thick, strokes, which give the characters an uncouth appearance and a certain resemblance to those of the Kuṣana period. The following signs show, already in the earliest period, peculiar developments:—
- (1) The  $\bar{I}$ , which consists of two dots, placed side by side, and (compare the  $\bar{I}$  of the Bower MS.) a ra-like figure below, which represents the other two dots (plate V, 4, I; VI, 4, IX).
  - (2) The quadrangular ca (plate V, 15, I; VI, 20, VIII, IX).
- (3) The lingual da, which shows in the middle a loop, instead of an acute angle, and a wedge at the end (plate V, 22, I; VI, 27, VIII, IX).
- (4) The dental ta, which, being derived from a looped form, has lost its left half, while the right has been converted into a curve (plate V, 25, I; VI, 30, VIII, IX).
- (5) The dental dha, which is flattened at the top and is below so broad that it resembles a Devanāgarī pa.
- (6) The va, which, owing to the connection of the left side of the curve with the top-stroke, closely resembles dha (plate V, 38, I; VI, 43, VIII, IX).
- (7) The quadrangular śa, which exactly resembles a Nāgarī sa (plate V, 39, I; VI, 44, VIII, IX).
- (8) The angular medial ? (plate V, 43, I; VI, 43, VIII), and the detached o, which stands by itself above the line (plate V, 24, I; VI, 31, IX), and without doubt is derived from the Gupta o (plate IV, 34, IV).
- (9) The ra, which, as a first part of ligatures, is inserted into the left side of the second letter, just as in the Aphsad inscription.<sup>8</sup>

The other letters of the earlier documents differ very little from those of the western Gupta alphabet, and the changes, which are found, all occur also in the acute-angled script.

<sup>1</sup> Compare, for this paragraph, Kashmir Report (J.BBRAS 12), 81; J.ASB. 60, 83.

2 C.CMI. pl. 4, 5.

4 SB.WA. CVII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Seventh Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 133; IA. 17, 33, 275.

<sup>5</sup> A good facsimile from a Sarada MS. of the same period is found in the Catalogue of the Berlin Sanskrit and rakrit MSS., Vol. 2, 3, pl. 2; an inferior one, from the India Office MS. 3176, together with a table of the letters and ligatures, in Pal. Soc., Or. Ser., pl. 44.

and ligatures, in Pal. Soc., Or. Ser., pl. 44.

6 SB.WA. CXVI, 584.

7 Kashmir Report (J.BBRAS. 12), 82; for the alphabet, see J.RAS. 1891, 362.

See above, § 24, C, 3.

The constant use of the bipartite ya, of the na with the suppressed base-stroke (see above, § 24, A, 17), of the i and i, drawn down respectively to the left and the right of the consonant (§ 24, B, 2), and of the simplified Jihvāmūlīya (plate V, 47, I), indicates that the separation of the Sāradā from the Gupta alphabet did not take place before the 7th century.

In the later Sāradā (plate VI, col. IX), further abnormal developments are noticeable in  $\bar{U}$ , E, AI, O, AU, ja,  $\bar{n}a$ , bha, rtha (which latter occurs also in plate VI, col. VIII), and owing to the use of long top-strokes the heads of several letters, such as A, A and ya, are closed.

## § 26. — Eastern varieties of the Nagari alphabet and the arrow-head script,

#### A. - Proto-Bengālī; Plates V. and VI.

Towards the end of the 11th century, the Nāgarī inscriptions of Eastern India shew such distinct traces of changes leading up to the modern Bengālī writing, and these changes become so numerous in the 12th century, that it is possible to class their alphabets as Proto-Bengālī. An approximate idea of the development of the Proto-Bengālī may be obtained by comparing the characters of the following documents, represented in our plates: — (1) of the Deopārā Praśasti¹ of about A. D. 1080-90 (plate V, col. XVIII), which includes the Bengālī E, kha, ña, ta, tha, ma, ra, la, and sa; (2) of Vaidyadeva's land-grant² of A. D. 1142 (plate V, col. XIX), with the Bengālī Ŗ, E, AI, kha, ga, ña, ta, tha, dha, ra, and va; and (3) of the Cambridge MSS. No. 1699, 1, 2,³ of A. D. 1198-99 (plate VI, col. X), which offers the Bengālī A, Ā, Ū, Ŗ, Ŗ, Ļ, Ļ, E, AI, AU, ka, kha, ga, ta, tha, na, ma, ya, ra, va and sa, as well as transitional forms of gha, ña, na and śa.

Only a few among the Proto-Bengālī letters are new local formations. The great majority occurs already in other older scripts, be it in exactly the same or in similar shape. [58] Thus, its R,  $\overline{R}$ , L and  $\overline{L}$  agree closely with the corresponding characters of the Horiuzi MS. (plate VI, 7-10, V), its  $\bar{U}$  with that of the oldest MS. from Nepal (plate VI, 6, VII; compare also the Sāradā, VI, 6, IX), and its AU with that of the Bower MS. (plate VI, 14, I, II). Its signs for A, A, ka, na, ma, ya, va, sa, and sa occur repeatedly in various alphabets of the 8th-10th centuries, given in plates IV, V. Its kha, opened on the right, finds an analogy in that of the Bower MS. (plate VI, 16, I), and its tha, likewise opened on the right, somewhat resembles that of plate V, 26, IX. Finally, the ga and na with the verticals, rising on the right above the line, have precursors in the letters of the 9th and 10th centuries with horn-like protuberances (plate V, 12, 24, II—IV, VI; compare also above, § 24, A, 1). Even the ra, resembling va (plate V, 36, XIX; VI, 41, 49, X), may easily be recognised as due to a slightly abnormal development of the wedge at the end of the letter, for which, forms from Western and Central India in plate V, 36, XIII, XIV, offer more or less close analogies. Only the E and AI, open on the left, and the peculiar  $\tilde{n}a$  in  $\tilde{n}ca$  (plate V, 19, XVIII) and in  $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ (plate VI, 24, X), appear to be purely local new formations. And this may be true also of the ta (plate V, 25, XVIII, XIX; VI, 30, X), which, however, does not differ much from the Sāradā sign and from the final t of some other alphabets.

The most striking and important among the peculiarities of the Proto-Bengālī, discarded in the modern Bengālī script, are the small triangles with the rounded lower side and the "Nepalese hooks," which are attached to the left of the tops of various letters. The triangle is found in kṣi (plate V, 47, XVIII) and in very many letters of plate V, col. XIX; while the hook occurs in the ka and ta of plate V, 25 and 43, XVIII.4 If further we compare the Tarpan-Dighī inscription of Lakṣmaṇasena, where the triangles and hooks frequently appear alternately in connection with the same letters, it becomes evident that the "Nepalese hook"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> EI, 1, 305 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> EI. 2, 347.

S Compare Bendall, who slightly differs in Cat. Sanskr. Buddhist MSS. from Nepāl, XXXVI, and letter-press of Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 81.

Both the triangle and the hook are found in the Gaya inscription, IA. 10, 312.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> J.ASB. 41, pl. 1, 2,

is a cursive substitute for the triangle. The triangle itself is a modification of the top-stroke with a semi-circle below, occasionally met with in ornamental inscriptions from Northern and Central India, as, e. g., in Vināyakapāla's plate (letters with this peculiarity have not been given in plate IV, col. XXIII) and in the Cāndella inscription in Cunningham's Archæological Reports, Vol. 10, plate 33, No. 3. This last-mentioned form again is connected with, and gives the outlines of, the thick top-strokes, rounded off at both ends, which are not rare in ornamental MSS. like that figured by Bendall, Catalogue of Sanskrit Buddhist MSS, from Nepāl, plate 2, Nos. 1, 2, and in the alphabet of plate VI, col. XIV (see particularly lines 5, 7, 15, 30, 34, 37, 49).

Among the abnormal single signs, not received into the modern Bengālī, the following deserve special remarks:—

- (1) The forms of I in plate V, 3, XVIII, and VI, 3, X, are cursive developments of the ancient I in plate IV, 3, IX, &c. But the I and  $\overline{I}$  of plate V, 3, 4, XIX, appear to be southern forms; compare plate VII, 3, IV—VI.
- (2) The curious ta of plate V, 20, XIX, seems to have been produced by an abnormally strong development of a "Nepalese hook" with a *Scrif* at the end, placed above the ancient round ta, which is represented by the second lower curve on the left; compare the ta of col. XVIII, and that of the Cambridge MS. No. 1693 (Bendall, op. cit. plate 4).
- (3) The  $n\alpha$  of plate V, 29, XIX, without a connecting stroke between the loop and the vertical, is due to the strongly developed predilection for cursive forms, which is visible also in other letters of Vaidyadeva's inscription, such as A,  $\overline{A}$ ,  $\dot{s}a$  and the ligature tkr (plate V, 47, XIX).
- (4) The triangular medial u, for instance of ku (plate V, 10, XIX), which appears also in Lakṣmaṇasena's Tarpan-Dighī grant and other eastern inscriptions, gives the outline of the older wedge-shaped form, found, e. g., in thu (plate V, 26, XVIII) and in su (plate VI, 45, II).
- (5) The Anusvāra of vain (plate V, 38, XIX) and of kain (plate VI, 15, X) has been placed on the line, as in the Old-Kanarese (see below, § 29, C, 5) and the modern Grantha, and a Virāma stands below it.
- (6) In the Om of plate V, 9, XVIII, we have the oldest example of the occurrence of the modern Anunāsika. In this case, it shows a little circle instead of the more usual dot, which is found in the Om of plate VI, 13, XI. Both forms are rather frequent in the eastern inscriptions of the 12th century, whereas in the west<sup>2</sup> they are more rare and are confined to the word Om. The Anunāsika, which I have not found in any Indian inscription older than the 11th century, probably is an intentional modification of the Anusvāra, invented because in Vedic MSS. the Anunāsika must be substituted for an Anusvāra followed by liquid consonants, sibilants and ha.
- (7) [59] The Visarga of vaḥ (plate V, 38, XVIII) carries a wedge at the top, which addition appears also in other ornamental scripts (see, e. g., plate VI, 30, XIV); in the ḥ of plate VI, 51, X (compare also VI, 41, XI, and the Gayā inscription), it has been changed cursively into a form resembling our figure 8. In the Gayā inscription (IA, 10, 342), as well as in MSS. of this period, it receives also a small tail (compare tāḥ, plate VI, 30, XIV).

<sup>1</sup> Compare the Gaya inscriptions in C.ASR. 3, pl. 37, No. 12; pl. 38, No. 13.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See the Mahoba inscription, C.ASE, 21, pl. 21.

<sup>3</sup> Compare the facsimiles of Bengali MSS, in Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 38, 82, 69; Rajendralal Mitea,

<sup>3</sup> Compare the facsimiles of Bengali MSS, in Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 38, 82, 69; Rajendralal Mitea,

Notices of Sanskrit MSS., Vol. 3, pl. 5, 6; Vols. 5 and 6; and the Proto-Bengali inscription, J.ASB, 43, 318, pl. 18.

## B. - The Nepalese hooked characters; Plate VI.

According to Bendall's careful examination of the MSS. from Nepāl,¹ the hooked characters first occur in the 12th century and disappear towards the end of the 15th. The facts, stated above, which prove the occurrence of the "Nepalese hooks" in Bengal inscriptions of the 12th century and explain their origin, leave no doubt that the introduction of this modification of the top-strokes is due to the influence of Bengal, which, as Bendall has recognised,² makes itself felt also in other points.

The first of the two specimens of this character in plate VI, col. XI, which is derived from the Cambridge MS. No. 1691, of A. D. 1179,3 shows in the majority of the letters the forms of the Horiuzi palm-leaves and of the Cambridge MS. No. 1049 (cols. V—VII), with a few small modifications, such as might be expected in a much later document. Irrespective of the hooks, special Bengālī peculiarities are observable only in I,  $\bar{I}$ , E and AI. Generally speaking, these remarks hold good also for the second specimen in plate VI, col. XII, from the British Museum MS., Oriental No. 1439, of A. D. 1286. But in this script the Bengālī influence is visible in E, na, dha and  $\acute{s}a$  (compare the transitional forms of V, 39, XVIII, XIX), while its I is very archaic.

Nepāl and Tibet seem to have preserved a number of other, mostly ornamental, alphabets of Eastern India, hand-drawn tables of which have been given by B. Hodgson (Asiatic Researches, Vol. 16) and by Sarat Candradas (J.ASB., Vol. 57, plates 1 to 7). But up to the present time no reliable materials are available, on which a paleographical examination of these scripts could be based.

## C, - The arrow-head alphabet; Plate VI.

The arrow-head alphabet, plate VI, cols. XVIII, XIX, which C. Bendall, its discoverer, is inclined to identify with Berüni's bhaiksuki lipi, appears to be confined to Eastern India. It, of course, has no connection with the Nāgarī, but, as Bendall points out in his very careful description, is the immediate offspring of an ancient form of the Brāhmī. It would seem that the A, A, ka, ña, ra and perhaps also the jha of the present alphabet have curves at the lower end. This peculiarity, as well as the peculiar E, noted by Bendall (compare plate VIII, 8, VIII) and the absence of a difference between r and ra, seem to indicate that the present alphabet belonged to the southern scripts, for which these points are characteristic (compare plate III, cols. X—XX, and plates VII, VIII). Its pointed kha, ga, and śa likewise occur in southern alphabets (see plate III, 8, VII; VII, 9, XI, XIV; VII, 11, XVII; 36, IV, XVI, XX). And the forms of na, ta, and na perhaps point rather to the south-west than to the south (compare plate VII, cols. I, II, &c.). Only in the case of the looped sa it is possible to think of northern (Gupta) influence; but the possibility that it is an independent new formation is not excluded. An inscription in the same alphabet, and shewing wedges instead of arrow-heads at the top of the letters, has been discussed by Bendall in IA. 19, 77 f.

<sup>1</sup> Bendall, Cat. Sankr. Buddhist MSS. from Nepal, XXII ff.

<sup>2</sup> Op. cit. XXXV, XXXVII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Op. cit. pl. 3, 4; Berlin Oriental Congress, Indian Section, pl. 2, 1.

<sup>\*</sup> Pal. Soc., Or. Ser., pl. 32; Berlin Oriental Congress, Indian Section, pl. 2, 2, 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> For facsimiles of MSS. with Nepalese "hooked characters," see Bendall, Cat. Sanskr. Buddhist MSS. from Nepāl, pl. 3; Pal. Soc., Or. Series, pl. 43, 57; Cowell and Eggeling, Cat. Buddhist MSS. of the Royal Asiatic Society, J.RAS. 1876, 1, ff.; for the alphabet, see Bendall, op. cit. pl. 4; J. Klatt. de CCC Canakyae sententiis, pl.

<sup>6</sup> Compare also Fleer's remarks on ornamental characters, IA. 15, 334.

<sup>3</sup> Seventh Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 111 ff.; and Tenth Oriental Congress, Part II, 151 ff.

## V. THE SOUTHERN ALPHABETS.

## § 27. — Definition and varieties.

[60] With Burnell and Fleet, I understand by the term "southern alphabets" the scripts of plates VII. and VIII, which, developed out of the characters of the Andhra period, have been generally used since about A. D. 350 in the territories south of the Vindhya, and most of which still survive in the modern alphabets of the Dravidian districts.

Their most important common characteristics are: -

- (1) The retention of the ancient forms, open at the top, of gha, pa, pha, sa and sa, of the old ma, and of the tripartite ya which is looped only occasionally, especially in the Grantha.
- (2) The retention of the long stroke on the right of la, which however is mostly bent towards the left.
  - (3) The da with the round back.
- (4) The curves, originally open at the top, at the ends of the long verticals of A,  $\bar{A}$ , ka,  $\bar{n}a$  and ra, as well as of the subscript ra and of medial u and  $\bar{u}$ .
- (5) The medial r with a curled curve on the left, with occasional exceptions occurring in kr.
  - Preparation of Plates VII. and VIII: —

#### PLATE VII.

#### Cuttings from facsimiles.

Col. I; from FLEET; Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), No. 5, pl. 3 B; with E from No. 62, pl. 38, B,

Cols. II, III; from F.GI (CII. 3), No. 18, pl. 11.

Col. IV; from plate at IA. 7, 66.

Col. V; from plate at IA. 5, 205; with A, A, U, ghā, dhau, hā, kṣa, ttā, from plate at IA. 6, 9, and nta from plate at IA. 7, 68.

Col. VI; from F.GI (CII. 3), No. 38, pl. 24.

Col. VII; from F.GI (CII. 3), No. 39, pl. 25.

Col. VIII; from plate at EI. 2, 20, No. 1; with I,  $\tilde{n}a$ , ba,  $\tilde{n}ca$ ,  $br\bar{a}$ , lya, from No. 3, at p. 22.

Col. IX; from plate at IA. 13, 78.

Col. X; from F.GI (CII. 3), No. 55, pl. 34; with U and AU from No. 41, pl. 27, and  $\overline{U}$  from Ajantā No. 3, B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 57.

Col. XI; from F.GI (CII. 3), No. 56, pl. 35.

Col, XII; from plate at IA. 7, 35.

Col. XIII; from plate at IA. 7, 37; with I, nsa, jye, nam, tsa, from plate at IA. 6, 24.

Col. XIV; from plate at IA. 10, 58; with  $\overline{A}$ ,  $\overline{U}$ , and coha from plates at IA. 7, 161, and k! from plate at IA. 6, 72, and k! from plate at IA. 8, 44.

Col. XV; from plate at IA. 10, 104, Finer's No. 94; with  $\bar{I}$  (3, XV, b),  $\dot{n}gs$ ,  $\dot{s}i$ , and  $\dot{l}i$  from Finer's Nos. 99, 100, plate at IA. 10, 164, and  $\dot{l}la$  from Finer's No. 95, plate at IA. 10, 104.

Col. XVI; from plates at IA, 8, 24 ff.

Col. XVII; from plate at IA. 13, 137.

Col. XVIII; from plates at IA. 8, 320.

Col. XIX; from plate at IA. 13, 123.

Col. XX; from plates at IA, 5, 50 ff.

Col. XXI; from plates at IA. 5, 154 ff.

Col. XXII; from HULTZSCE's SII. 2, pl. 10.

Col. XXIII; from HULTZSCH's SIL. 2, pl. 9.

Col. XXIV; from HULTZSCH'S SII. 2, pl. 11.

#### PLATE VIII.

### Cuttings from facsimiles.

Col. I; from plates at IA. 12, 158 ff.

Col. II; from plate at IA. 11, 126, FLEET's No. 123.

Col. III; from plates at IA. 12, 14.

Col. IV; from plates at IA. 13, 186 ff.

Col. V; from plates at IA. 7, 16.

Col. VI; from plates at IA. 14, 50 ff.

Col. VII; from plate at IA. 6, 138; with A, U,  $c\bar{a}$ , and  $t\bar{t}a$  from plate at IA. 9, 75.

Col. VIII; from plates at IA. 11, 12 ff.

Col. IX; from plate at EI. 3, 62.

Col. X; from plate at IA. 13. 275.

Col. XI; from plate at IA. 18, 144.

Col. XIE; from plate at EI. 3, 18.

Col. XIII; from HULTZSCH'S SH. 2, pl. 13.

Col. XIV; from plate at EI. 3, 76.

Col. XV; from plate at EI. 3, 14.

Coll XVI; from HULTZSCH'S SII. 2, pl. 12.

Cols. XVII, XVIII; from HULEZSCH'S SII. 2, pl. 4. Cols. XIX, XX; from plate at EI. 3, 72, the lower

part.

Cols. XXI, XXII; from plate at EI, 3, 72, the upper part.

According to other peculiarities, the southern alphabets may be divided into the following varieties:1-

- (1) The western variety, which, being strongly influenced by the northern alphabets, is the ruling script between about A. D. 400 and about A. D. 900 in Kāṭhiāvāḍ, Gujarāt, the western portion of the Marāṭhā districts, i. e. the Collectorates of Nāsik, Khāndesh and Sātārā, in the part of Haidarābād (Ajaṇṭā) contiguous to Khāndesh, and in the Koṅkaṇ, and which during the 5th century occasionally occurs also in Rājputāna and the Central Indian Agency, but altogether disappears in the 9th century in consequence of the inroads of the Nāgarī alphabet (see above, § 21).
- (2) The Central-Indian script, which in its simplest form closely agrees with the western variety, but in its more developed form, the so-called "box-headed alphabet," shows greater differences, and which from the end of the 4th century is common in northern Haidarābād, the Central Provinces and parts of the Central-Indian Agency (Bundelkhand), but appears also occasionally further south in the Bombay Presidency and even in Maisūr.
- (3) The script of the Kanarese and Telugu districts of the Dekhan, i. e. of the southern portion of the Bombay Presidency (the Southern Marāṭhā States, Sholāpur, Bijāpur, Belgaum, Dhārwār and Kārwār), of the southern territory of Haidarābād (roughly speaking south of Bidar), of Maisūr, and of the north-east portion of the Madras Presidency (Vizagapatam, Godāvarī, Kistna, Karnūl, Bellary, Anantpur, Cuddapah, Nellore), which appears first in the Kadamba inscriptions of the 5th and 6th centuries, and after a long development leads to the very similar and temporarily identical Kanarese and Telugu round-hand.
- (4) The later Kalinga alphabet of the north-eastern coast of the Madras Presidency between Cicacole and the frontier of Orissa (Ganjām), which is strongly mixed with northern letters and in later times also with Grantha and Kanarese-Telugu characters, and which occurs in inscriptions of the 7th—12th centuries.
- (5) The Grantha alphabet of the eastern coast of Madras, south of Pulikat (North and South Arcot, Salem, Trichinopoli, Madura and Tinnevelli), which first appears in the ancient Sanskrit inscriptions of the Pallava dynasties, and survives in the modern Grantha and its varieties, the Malayālam and the Tulu.

The Tamil alphabet of the same districts and of the western coast of Madras (Malabar) probably is derived from a northern script, imported in the 4th or 5th century, but greatly modified by the influence of the Grantha. A cursive variety of the Tamil alphabet is found in the Vatteluttu (the "round-hand," BURNELL) or Cera-Pāṇḍya (HULTZSCH),<sup>2</sup> which is known through inscriptions from the western coast and the extreme south of the Peninsula, and according to BURNELL [61] has fallen into disuse only in recent times.<sup>3</sup> Though these two alphabets come from a different source, they have been included in this chapter, because they occur in the same districts as the other five.

## § 28. — The western script and the script of Central India; Plates VII. and VIII.

## A. - The western script.

The western variety of the southern alphabets is found in the inscriptions of the inperial Guptas and their vassals since the time of Candragupta II.,4 of the kings of Valabhī,5 the Gurjaras of Broach,6 of some of the Calukyas of Bādāmi (Pulakeśin II. and Vijayabhaṭṭā-

Compare B.ESIP. 14. 2 IA. 20, 286. 8 B.ESIP. 48.

Compare the facsimiles in Fleer's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), Nos. 5, 14, and 62, plates 3 B, 8, 38 B, Fleer's remarks.

Compare the facsimiles in F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 38, 39, plates 24, 25; IA. 1, 17; 5, 204 ff.; 6, 14 ff.; 7, 66 ff.; 2, 9, 288; 14, 328; J.BBRAS. 11, 363; EI. 3, 320.

Compare the facsimiles at J.RAS. 1865, 247; IA. 13, 78; [7, 62; 13, 116; 17, 200; disputed]; EI. 2, 19 ff.

rikā), and of Nāsik and Gujarāt and their vassals, of the Traikūtakas, of the Asmakas (?) of Khāndesh,3 and of the Rāṣtrakūtas of Gujarāt,4 as well as in numerous votive inscriptions in the caves of Kanheri, Nāsik and Ajanṭā. 5 Ordinarily, its characters no doubt were written with ink, just like those of the northern alphabets (see above, § 21). This is made highly probable by the use of wedges on the tops of the letters during the Gupta period (see plate VII, cols. I—III) and by the thick, frequently knob-like, heads of the signs of the Valabhī, Gurjara and Rāṣṭrakūta grants (plate VII, cols. IV—IX, and plate VIII, col. I), both of which ornaments can only be drawn with ink. Another argument is furnished by the fact that all the copper-plates from Gujarāt have been cut according to the ordinary size of the Bhūrja leaves (BURNELL), on which it is not possible to write with a stilus.

The finds of nearly or quite contemporaneous inscriptions with northern characters in Rājputāna, the Central-Indian Agency,6 and Valabhī, as well as the Nāgarī signatures of the Gurjara princes,7 prove that northern scripts were being used simultaneously with this southern alphabet. And this circumstance is no doubt the cause of its showing traces of northern peculiarities in the following letters: - (1) in the kha with a large loop and a small hook (plate VII, 9, I-IX; VIII, 12, I), instead of which the true southern form appears only very rarely; 8 (2) in the ca, rounded off on the right (plate VII, 13, I-IX; VIII, 16, I); (3) in the ancient ta without a loop (plate VII, 22, I—IX; VIII, 25, I); (4) in the narrow dha (plate VII, 25, I-IX; VIII, 28, I; compare plate IV, 25, I-III); (5) in the looped na (plate VII, 26, I-IX; VIII, 29, I), which agrees more exactly with the northern forms of plate IV, 26, than with the southern one of VII, 26, XIII (compare below, § 29, A); (6) in the Mātrās often placed above the line in medial e (plate VII, 26, V), at (plate VII, 10, IV) and ō (plate VIII, 35, I), which latter, however, has a peculiar looped form in lo (plate VII, 34, III, IV); (7) in the medial au, consisting of three strokes above the line (VII, 25, V; 36. III); and compare plate IV, 7, IV); (8) in the subscript na, which occasionally, as in plate VII, 42, VII, shows the northern cursive form. The inscriptions Nos. 17 and 62 of FLEET's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), plates 10, 38 B, which are not represented in plate VII, show, [62] besides, the northern A and ka without the curve at the foot. A ka of this description occurs also sometimes in the Valabhi inscriptions (plate VII, 8, V).

Irrespective of these northern peculiarities, which throughout remain almost unchanged, the characters of this script show three stages in their development, that of the 5th century (plate VII, cols. I-III), that of the 6th and 7th centuries (cols. IV-VI, VIII), and that of the 8th (col. IX) and 9th centuries (plate VIII, col. I) which last is very markedly cursive.

Among the single letters the following deserve special remarks: -

- (1) The I (plate VII, 3, IV, ff.; VIII, 3, I), which here, as in most southern alphabets, consists of a curved line with a notch in the centre and of two dots below, and which appears to be a modification of a form like that in plate IV, 3, IX.
- (2) The I (plate VII, 3, I; VIII, 4, I), which, like that of the Bower MS. (plate VI, 4, I), has been developed by the transformation of two dots into a line, but in addition has the curved tail, characteristic of the southern alphabets.
- (8) The E, which usually consists of a triangle with the apex at the top, and is irregular larly broadened on the left (plate VII, 6, I; and compare AI in VII, 6, VII), and which from

7 Compare above, § 21 end.

<sup>1</sup> Compare the facsimiles at #EI 3, 52; IA. 7, 164; 8, 46; 9, 124; J.BBRAS. 16, 1; Seventh Oriental Congres Aryan Section, 238; IA. 19, 310.

s Compare the facsimile at IA. 16, 98. <sup>2</sup> Compare the facsimiles at B.ASRWI. No. 10, 58.

Compare the facsimiles at IA. 12, 158; J.BBRAS. 16, 105; EI. 3, 56.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Compare the facsimiles at B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 55, 9; pl. 58, 5 and 9; plates 59, 60; vol. 5, pl. 51, 6—9.

<sup>6</sup> Compare the facsimiles in F.GI. (CII. 3), No. 6, 17, 61, plates 4 A, 10, 38 A. \* Compare, for instance, Wkhitam, facsimile at IA. 7, 72

the end of the 6th century frequently, especially in Gurjara inscriptions, is opened at the top (plate VII, 6, VI) and finally resembles a northern la (plate VIII, 8, I).

- (4) The da, which in its oldest form (plate VII, 19, II), as mostly in the southern alphabets, is undistinguishable from da, but from the 6th century develops a little tail (plate VII, 19, IV—IX), or, in some inscriptions of the 8th and 9th centuries, a loop at the end (plate VII, 43, VII; plate VIII, 22, I).
- (5) The tha with a ringlet on the base-line (plate VII, 23, III, IV, VI) instead of the cross-bar (plate VII, 23, I, II), developed out of the ancient dot, or since the end of the 6th century with the southern notch in the base (plate VII, 23, VII—IX; plate VIII, 26, I).
- (6) The la with the diminutive main portion of the original sign and the enormous tail (plate VII, 34, VI, VIII), which latter since the 7th century frequently becomes the sole representative of the letter (plate VII, 34, VII, IX).
- (7) The \$a, which shows regularly in the Gurjara inscriptions (plate VIII, 39, I) and the Nāsik Calukya inscription,<sup>2</sup> and occasionally in the Valabhī inscriptions,<sup>3</sup> a cursive combination of the cross-bar with the vertical on the right, which occars also in the north.<sup>4</sup>
- (8) The sa, which occasionally shows (plate VII, 38, V) a cursive combination of the left limb with the Serif occurring also in southern scripts (plate VIII, 41, XI).
- (9) A number of cursive forms in ligatures, thus: (a) The prefixed  $\vec{n}a$  which often loses the hook on the right and looks like  $\vec{n}a$  (compare also plate V, 19, V, VII. (b) The prefixed  $\vec{n}a$ , which especially before ta, tha, dha and na (see the nta of anumantavyah, plate VII, 42, V) consists of a horizontal or bent stroke and looks like ta. (c) The subscript ka, which occasionally, as in  $\vec{n}ka$  (plate VII, 46, VIII), is looped on the left (compare IA. 11, 305). (d) The subscript ca of  $\vec{n}ca$  (plate VII, 41, VIII, IX), which since the 6th century remains open on the right and bears the hook of  $\vec{n}a$  on its base. (e) The subscript  $\vec{n}a$ , which already since early times is merely indicated by a loop (see rnna, plate VII, 41, IV). (f) The subscript tha, which, as in other southern alphabets (compare, e, g, plate VII, 45, XX), is changed to a double curve open on the right (plate VII, 45, IV; plate VIII, 49, I).

#### B. - The script of Central India,

The Central-Indian script is found fully developed in the inscriptions of Samudragupta at Eran and of Candragupta II. at Udayagiri, on the copper-plates of the kings of Sarabhapura. of the Väkätakas, and of Tīvara king of Kosala, and in two early Kadamba inscriptions. In all these documents, the heads of the letters bear small squares, which are either hollow (plate VII, col. XI) or filled in (plate VII, col. X). These squares, to which on account of their resemblances to small boxes the script owes the name "box-headed," are, like the wedges, artificial developments of the Serifs. The solid, filled in, squares probably have been invented by writers who [63] used ink, and the hollow ones by persons writing with a stilus, who feared to tear their palm-leaves. Both varieties of "box-heads" occur occasionally or constantly in other districts and in connection with other alphabets (see, e. g., the Valabhī

Transitional forms occur in the Calukya inscriptions.

Compare IA. 6, 10, and facsimile at 14, 328.

Compare IA. 6, 10, and facsimile at 14, 328.

Compare facsimile at J.ASB. 64, 1, plate 9, No. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See also my remarks in IA. 6, 110, and below, § 28, B.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 2, 3, pl. 2, A, B.

<sup>7</sup> Op. cit., Nos. 40, 41, plates 26, 27.

<sup>8</sup> Op. cit., Nos. 53—56, plates 33, A, to 35; IA. 12, 239; B.ASEWI. 4, pl. 56, No. 4; pl. 57, No. 3; EI. 3, 260; the earliest of them belong in BHAGVANIAL INDRAJI's and my opinion to the 5th, according to FLEET to the 7th, century.

F.GI (CII. 3), No. 81, pl. 45; according to FLEET from the 8th or 9th century; according to Kielhorn, EI. 4, 258, undoubtedly from the 8th.

<sup>16</sup> See Fleer, IA. 21, 93; of the same type is, according to an impression presented to me by L. Rice, the Talgund (Sthanakundura) Prasasti of Kubia from the reign of Santivarman, Ep. Carn. 7, Sk. 176 (and El. 8).

inscription of plate VII, col. V, the archaic Kadamba inscription of plate VII, col. XII, the Pallava inscription of plate VII, col. XX), and even in Nos. 21 and 21, A, of the Campā inscriptions from Further India.¹ But the very peculiar appearance of the Central-Indian inscriptions of this class is due to the more or less rigorous modification of the letters by the contraction of their breadth and the conversion of all curves into angular strokes. This is best visible in the grants, figured in EI. 3, 260, and in Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions (CII. 3), Nos. 40, 41, 56, 81, plates 26, 27, 35, 45, among which No. 56 is represented in col. XI. of our plate VII, while col. X. offers the less carefully modified characters of F.GI (CII. 3), No. 55, plate 34. Both these inscriptions were issued in the same year from the Dharmādhikaraṇa of the Vākāṭaka king Pravarasena II.

Traces of the influence of the northern alphabets are visible in this script just as in the western variety, and particularly in the letters ta, dha, na, and in the Mātrās of medial e, ai and o, which in F.GI (CII.3), No. 81, plate 45 (not in our plate), shew the peculiar tailed northern form of the 7th and 8th centuries. But in the ligatures (see, for instance, nta, plate VII, 43, X), we meet repeatedly with the looped ta and with the na without the loop, and even an independent looped ta appears exceptionally in the word snātānām (No. 55, line 7; No. 56, line 6). Medial au has the tripartite western and northern form in F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 2, 3, 40, 81, plates 2, A, B, 26, 45, but the southern bipartite form (see dau, plate VII, 24, XI) in the Vākāṭaka inscriptions. The kha, which has a big hook and small loop, and the oblong ca with the vertical on the right, likewise agree with the southern forms. But F.GI (CII. 3), No. 2, line 17, offers once, in śulkā, the northern ka without the curve at the foot.

The other letters of this script frequently show greater or smaller variations. Our plate offers a few in the case of  $\overline{A}$ , ja, tha, ba and ba. More have been pointed out by FLEET and KIELHORN in their editions of the inscriptions in F.GI (CII. 3) and in EI. 3. I may add to FLEET's remarks, that his Nos. 40, 41, and 81 have the angular form of ma of the later Kanarese-Telugu alphabet (see below, § 29, B, 6).

## § 29. — The Kanarese and Telugu alphabet; Plates VII. and VIII.

#### A. — The archaic variety.

[64] The archaic variety of this script is found:—(a) In the west, in the inscriptions of the Kadambas of Vaijayantī or Banavāsi (plate VII, cols. XII, XIII), and of the early Calukyas of Vātāpi or Bādāmi, e.g. of Kīrtivarman I. and Mangaleśa (plate VII, col. XIV), Pulakeśin II., and Vikramāditya I. (sometimes). (b) In the east, on the Sālankāyana plates, and on those of the first two Calukyas of Vengi, Viṣṇuvardhana I. and Jayasimha I. (plate VII, col. XVII).<sup>3</sup> The date of the Sālankāyana plates, which used to be assigned to the 4th century, is uncertain.<sup>5</sup> The Kadamba grants probably belong partly to the 5th and partly to the 6th centuries; for, Kākusthavarman, who issued the oldest known record, was the contemporary of one of the Imperial Guptas, probably of Samudragupta, and his descendants all ruled before the overthrow of the Kadamba kingdom by Kīrtivarman I., between A. D. 566-67 and 596-97. The archaic Calukya inscriptions fall between A. D. 578 and about 660.7

During this period, the characters of the western and eastern documents do not differ much. The alphabet of the Sālankāyana plates agrees very closely with that of plate VII,

<sup>1</sup> Beegaigne-Barte, Inscriptions Sanskrit du Campa et du Cambodge, 2, 23; the Campa inscriptions show the northern ka and ra without curves at the end.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> FLEET and KIELHORN assume that the writers by mistake put na for fa and vice versa.

<sup>4</sup> B.ESIP. 16, pl. 1. 5 Fleet, IA. 20, 94. 6 Academy, 1895 7 See Fleet's dates of the Calukyas, EI. 3, table at p. 2; IA. 20, 95 ff. 8 B.ESIP. pl. 1.

col. XIII; and in the first half of the 7th century the letters of the Calukya inscriptions from Vātāpi and from Vengi show an almost perfect resemblance.¹ But the more considerable differences between cols. XII. and XIII, which both are derived from grants of the Kadamba Mṛgeśavarman issued within a period of only five years, have to be explained by the assumption that the letters of col. XIII, with which nearly all the other Kadamba inscriptions agree, imitate writing with ink, and those of col. XII. writing with the stilus. This explanation is suggested by the thinness of the signs of col. XII, and by the much greater thickness of those in col. XIII, and by the wedges and solid squares at their heads (compare above, § 28, B).

The letters of the older documents of this period remain very similar to those of the Andhra inscriptions of plate III, the so-called "cave-characters." In the Sālankāyana grant, and in those of the Kadambas Kākusthavarman, Sāntivarman, Mṛgeśavarman and Ravivarman, we find only few, and by no means constant, traces of the development of the later characteristic round forms. Thus, col. XII. no doubt offers rather far advanced signs for A and ra, but at the same time a more archaic A, and the facsimile frequently shows even an angular ra with a not very long upward stroke. In the grants of the last Kadamba king Harivarman and in those of the Calukyas between A. D. 578 and 660, the A, A, ka and ra, characteristic of the next stage of development, occur not rarely, but never constantly. Thus col. XIV, derived from the Bādāmi inscription of Kīrtivarman I. and Mangaleśa, has the ka closed on the left. this form is the only one used there, and it never appears on Mangaleśa's copper-plate, nor on the Haidarabad plates of his successor Pulakeśin II.2 Further, this ka, as well as the closed ra of 33, col. XV, occur on the Nerur plates of Pulakesin II.3 Finally, the Aihole stone inscription, of the time of Pulakesin II., has exclusively the older ka and ra, but occasionally the later A of col. XV. This vacillation indicates that between A. D. 578 and 660, and perhaps even earlier, the round-hand forms of the middle Kanarese alphabet existed, but that they either had not completely displaced the older ones, or that they were not yet considered as really suitable for inscriptions, though the clerks occasionally introduced them by mistake into the official documents (compare above, § 3, page 8).

Among the other signs, the following may be noted especially: -

- (1) The na (plate VII, 21, XII—XIV, XVII) which is never looped, but looks as if it were cursively developed from a looped form similar to that of col. I, ff.
- (2) The ta, which keeps the old form of the western inscriptions without a loop in 22, XIII, but shows in cols. XII, XIV, XVII, a cursive development from the looped ta of cols. XX—XXIII, which likewise is not rare in Kadamba and Calukya inscriptions of this period.
- (3) The tailed da (24, XIV, XVII) agreeing exactly with the western form [65] of da (19, IV—IX).
- (4) The na, which sometimes has the looped form (26, XIII), and more frequently that without the loop (26, XII, XIV—XVII); the latter being, however, apparently derived from the looped one.
- (5) The very exceptionally looped ya (in  $y\bar{s}$ , 45, XIV), which thus is identical with the much older northern form.
- (6) The medial vowels: (a)  $\tilde{u}$  in  $p\tilde{u}$  (27, XIII), a cursive substitute for the  $\tilde{u}$  of  $y\tilde{u}$  (32, VI),  $c\tilde{u}$  (13, IV), &c.; (b) the subscript r of hr (8, XII, XVII; 41, XIV), somewhat resembling a northern r (which latter actually occurs once on the seal figured in IA. 6, 24, in  $Mrge\acute{sa}$ ), but probably independently derived from a not uncommon r in the shape of an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare also the facsimile at IA. 6, 72, and B.ESIP. pl. 27.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 6, 72.

<sup>\*</sup> IA. 8, 44.

<sup>\*</sup> See the plates at IA. 8, 241; EI. 6.6.

unconnected semicircle before ka; (c) the exceedingly rare l of kl (42, XIV), which, differing from the northern subscript l (plate VI, 35, XVII), but agreeing with the northern initial sign of the Cambridge MS., consists merely of a cursive la; (d) the Mātrā of e (in ne, 21, XII), of ai (in ai, 13, XII; and vai, 35, XIII), and of au (in thau, 23, XII), which, except in connection with le (see le, 34, XII, and lo, 34, XIII, XVII), frequently stands at the foot of the consonant; (e) the au (in pau, 27, XII, XIV), the right-hand portion of which invariably and in all southern alphabets consists of a hook, formed by a cursive combination of the second Mātrā with the  $\bar{a}$ -stroke (compare pau, plate III, 31, VI).

## B. — The middle variety.

This second variety is found from about A D. 650 to about A. D. 950:— (a) In the west, in the inscriptions of the Calukyas of Vātāpi or Bādāmi, of their successors the Rāṣṭrakūtas of Mānyakheta (in cases when they did not use the Nāgarī, see above, page 51), of the Gaṅgas of Maisūr, and of some smaller dynasties; (b) in the east, on the copper-plates of the Calukyas of Veṅgi and of their vassals. During this period, some marked differences are observable in the ductus between the several classes of documents. The copper-plates of the Western Calukyas (plate VII, col. XVI)¹ mostly show carelessly drawn cursive signs sloping towards the right, and their stone inscriptions (plate VII, col. XV) upright, carefully made, letters, which especially in the ligatures are abnormally large. With the characters of the latter agree those of the inscriptions of the Rāṣṭrakūtas (plate VIII, cols. II, III),² with the exception of the sign-manual on the Baroda copper-plate of Dhruva II.³ In this royal signature and in the inscriptions of the Calukyas of Veṅgi (plate VIII, cols. IV, V), the letters are broader and shorter, and in this respect resemble very closely the Old-Kanarese.4

In addition to the above-mentioned rounded forms of A, A, ka and ra, which become constant during this period, the following letters deserve special remarks:—

- (1) The very rare R (plate VII, 5, XVI; compare also the earlier letter in the facsimile at IA. 6, 23, end), which seems to be a modification of the northern form of plate VI, 7, I, II.
- (2) The strongly cursive kha (plate VIII, 12, III—V), which is identical with the Old-Kanarese letter, and which according to FLEET<sup>5</sup> never occurs before about A. D. 800, but actually appears in the cognate Pallava inscriptions (plate VII, 9, XXIII; compare below, § 31, B, 4) already since the 7th century.
- (3) The ca, which from the 9th century begins to open in \(\tilde{n}ca\) (plate VII, 41, XIX; plate VIII, 19, III, IV).
- (4) The da (plate VIII, 27, II, IV, V) the tail of which begins to turn apwards since the 9th century.
- (5) The ba, opened above (plate VIII, 32, V), which according to FLEET 6 first occurs about A. D. 850.
- (6) The ma (plate VII, 31, XVII; VIII, 34, II—V), the upper part of which is drawn towards the right and placed nearly on the same level as the lower one, and which thus becomes the precursor of the Old-Kanarese ma.
- (7) The abnormal cursive la (plate VII, 34, XVI), which elsewhere appears only as the second part of ligatures (as in \$lo, plate VII, 44, XVIII).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the facimiles at IA. 6, 86, 88; 7, 300; J.BBRAS. 16, 223 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare the facsimiles at IA. 10, 61 ff., 104, 166, 170; 11, 126; 20, 70; Ep. Carn. 3, 80, 87, 92 (for the last of these see also EI. 6, 54).

<sup>\*</sup> See the facsimile at IA. 14, 200.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Compare the facsimiles at IA. 12, 92; 13, 214, 248; EI. 3, 194. 
<sup>5</sup> EI/3, 162 f. 
<sup>6</sup> EI. 3, 163.

- (8) The Mātrās, which occasionally stand below the consonant (as in dhe, plate VIII, 28, V).
- (9) The vertical Virāma, above final m (plate VII, 41, XVIII; plate VIII, 46, V) and final n (plate VIII, 45, V).
- (10) The Dravidian ra (plate VII, 45, XV, XVIII; 46, XVI; plate VIII, 47, II, III) [66] and la (plate VII, 46, XV, XVIII; plate VIII, 49, II, V), which first appear in the 7th century. The first of them, ra, may possibly represent two round ra, and la may be a modification of a la like that in plate VII, 40, XIV, XVI. The occurrence of these signs proves that the Kanarese language had a literature already in the 7th century.

### C. - The Old-Kanarese alphabet.

The third and last variety of the Kanarese-Telugu alphabet, which Burnell calls "the transitional" and Fleet more appropriately "Old-Kanarese," does not differ much from the modern Kanarese and Telugu scripts. In the east, it first appears in the Vengi inscriptions of the 11th century; in the west, a little earlier, in a Ganga inscription of A. D. 978 and in a not much later Calukya inscription. Some of its characteristics, like the opening of the loop of ma and of the head of va, appear however in the sign-manual of Dhruva II. on the Baroda plates, mentioned above under B. The specimens of this script in plate VIII, among which cols. VI. and VII. date from the 11th century, col. VIII. from the 12th, and col. 1X (according to Hultzsch, Telugu) from the 14th, show the gradual progress very distinctly.

One of the most characteristic marks of the Old-Kanarese consists in the angles over all Mātṛkās which do not bear superscribed vowel-signs. These angles, which in col. VI. resemble those of the modern Telugu and in cols. VII, VIII, those of the modern Kanarese, probably are cursive representatives of wedges, and have been invented because the latter did not suit the writing with the stilus. Since the 6th century, they occur more or less frequently in single inscriptions from other districts, such as Guhasena's grant of A. D. 559-60 (plate VII, col. IV) and Ravikīrti's Aihole Praśasti, sometimes together with wedges. But it is only in this alphabet that they become a constant distinctive feature.

The most important among the changes in the several signs are: -

- (1) The opening of the heads of E (plate VIII, 8, VI, VIII), of ca (16, V1-IX), of bha (33, VI-IX, which in col. IX. becomes identical with ba by the connection of the two base-strokes), and of va (38, VII-IX), as well as of the loop of ma (34, VI, VIII) and of the right limb of cha (17, VI-IX; compare also col. V).
- (2) The cursive looped forms of A,  $\overline{A}$  (1, 2, VII—IX), and of I,  $\overline{I}$  (3, 4, VI—IX; compare their precursors in 3, II, and 4, III, V), and of  $\acute{sa}$  (39, VII—IX), the central cross-bar of which is connected with the curved end of the right side.
- (3) The conversion of the long drawn loops of ka (11, VI-IX) and of ra (36, VI-IX) into much smaller circles.
- (4) The cursive rounding off of the angles of na (24, VI-IX), na (29, VI-IX), and sa (41, VI-IX).
- (5) The development of new loops or ringlets to the right of the top of R (7, IX), na (15, VIII, IX) and ja (18, VI—IX; compare col. V).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Burgess and Fleet, Pali, Sanskrit, and Old-Canarese inscriptions, Nos. 271, 214; see also, for the Ganga record, IA. 6, 102.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare also the facsimiles at IA. 9, 74; 14, 56; El. 3, 26, 88, 194, 228; Ep. Carn. 3, 116, 121; B.ASWI. No. 10, 190; and J.RAS. 1891, 135 (the original of Prinser's, Kistna alphabet, which is archaic and retrograed A, ka, ra, ka).

<sup>\*</sup> IA 8, 241; EI. 6, 6.

- (6) The exclusive employment of the medial u turning upwards on the right (see, for instance, pu, 30, IX), which in earlier times is restricted to gu, tu, bhu and  $\acute{s}u$ , but later appears also in su (plate VIII, 41, II, III).
- (7) Finally, the appearance of the Anusvāra on the line (see ram, 36, VIII), which cannot be a survival from ancient times, but must be an innovation intended to make the lines more equal (compare page 59 above, § 26, A, 5).1

## § 30. - The later Kalinga script; Plates VII. and VIII.

[67] This script has been found hitherto only on the copper-plates of the Ganga kings of Kalinganagara, the modern Kalingapattanam in Ganjam, which in olden times was the residence of the Ceta king Khāravela and his successors (see page 39 f. above). The dates of these documents run from the year 87 of the Gangeya era. Though its exact beginning has not yet been determined, Fleet has shown that the oldest Ganga grants probably belong to the 7th century.<sup>2</sup>

The signs of these documents resemble, up to the Gängeya year 183, partly the letters of the Central-Indian script (above, § 28, B) and partly those of the western variety, which exhibits the medial au, of the Ajantā inscriptions (above, § 28, A), and they show only a few peculiar forms. A specimen of the Kalinga script of the latter kind has been given in plate VII, col. XIX, from the Cicacole grant of the Gāngeya year 148, in which only the Grantha-like A (2, XIX), and the ga (10, XIX) and śa (36, XIX) with curves on the left, differ greatly from the corresponding Valabhī letters. The alphabet of the Acyutapuram plates³ of the Gāngeya year 87, which exhibits angular forms with solid box-heads, closely resembles the Central-Indian writing; but its na is identical with that of the modern Nāgarī. The Cicacole plates⁴ of the Gāngeya year 128 show in general the same type; but they offer the ordinary looped na of the north and west, and the looped ta of the archaic Grantha (22, XX, ff.). Finally, the Cicacole plates⁵ of the Gāngeya year 183 come close to the script of plate VII, col. X; but their na is again that of the late Nāgarī, and their medial ā mostly stands above the line, as in various northern and also Grantha documents of the 7th and 8th centuries.

In the grants of the 3rd and 4th centuries of the Gāngeya era, and in a late undated inscription, the mixture of the characters is much greater, and the same letter is often expressed by greatly differing signs. In plate VIII, col. X, from the Cicacole plates of the Gāngeya year 51, that is 251,6 and in col. XI, from the Vizagapatam plates of the year 254, and in col. XII, from the Alamanda plates of the year 304, we find a northern A, A (1, 2, X—XII), I (3, XI), U (5, X), ka (44, XI, XII), kha (12, XI), nga (15, X), nka (15, XII), ja (18, XII), na (in jnā, 19, X), dā (22, XII), na (24, XI, XII), dha (28, 45, XI), na (48, X), and pra (47, XII). The other letters are of southern origin, and belong partly to the middle Kanarese, partly to the middle Grantha, or are peculiar developments. The restricted space available in plate VIII. has made it impossible to enter all the variants for each letter. But the three different forms of ja (18, 46, and 47, X) show how very great the variations are.

Still stronger are the mixture and variations in the Cicacole plates of the Gangeya year 351,7 and in the undated grant of Vajrahasta from the 11th century (Kielhorn),8 neither of which is represented in our plate. In the first-named document each letter has, according to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare for this paragraph B.ESlP 15 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 13, 274; 16, 133.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> EI. 3, 128.

<sup>4</sup> IA. 13, 120; compare 16, 131 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> EI. 3, 132.

The words sata-dvaya probably have been left out by mistake after sanivatsara.

7 IA. 14, 10 f., Hultzsch's undoubtedly correct reading of the date has been adopted by First in his Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts, Bombay Gazetteer, vol. 1, part 2, p. 297, note 8, the printed sheets of which I owe to the author's courtesy. First declares this inscription, as well as those represented in plate VIII, cols. X, XII, to be suspicious, — in my opinion, without sufficient reasons.

<sup>8</sup> EL 3, 220.

FLEET, at least two, but sometimes three or four forms. The majority of the signs belong to the southern Nāgarī. But Old-Kanarese and late Grantha signs likewise occur. In Vajrahasta's grant there are, according to Kielhorn's calculation, 320 Nāgarī letters and 410 southern ones of different types, and each letter again has at least two and sometimes [68] four or more forms, Kielhorn points out that the writer has shown a certain art in the grouping of the variants; and he is no doubt right in hinting that the mixture is due to the vanity of royal scribes, who wished to show that they were acquainted with a number of alphabets. For the same reason, the writer of the Cicacole p'ates of the Gārigeya year 183 has used three different systems of numeral notation in expressing the date (see below, § 34). The kingdom of the Garigas of Kalinga lay between the districts in which the Nāgarī and the Kanarese-Telugu scripts were used, and it was not far from the territory of the Grantha. Its population was probably mixed, and used all these scripts, as well as, in earlier times, those employed in the older western and Central-Indian inscriptions. The professional clerks and writers of course had to master all the alphabets.

## § 31. — The Grantha alphabet; Plates VII. and VIII.

### A. - The archaic variety.

For the history of the Sanskrit alphabets in the Tamil districts during the period after A. D. 350, we have only the Sanskrit inscriptions of the Pallavas, Colas and Pāṇdyas from the eastern coast, among which only those of the first-named dynasty can lay claim to a higher antiquity. Corresponding inscriptions from the western coast are hitherto wanting. For this reason, and because only a small number of the eastern documents have been published with good facsimiles, it is as yet impossible to give a complete view of the gradual development of the letters.

The most archaic forms of the Sanskrit scripts of the Tamil districts, which usually are classed as "Grantha," are found on the copper-plates of the Pallava kings of Ialakkada and (? or) Daśanapura² (plate VII, cols. XX, XXI) from the 5th or the 6th century (?), with which the ancient inscriptions, Nos. 1 to 16, of the Dharmarājaratha (plate VII, col. XXII)³ closely agree. These inscriptions, together with a few others,⁴ exhibit what may be called the archaic Grantha, the latest example of which occurs in the Bādāmi inscription, incised, according to Fleet's newest researches,⁵ by the Pallava Narasiṃha I., during his expedition against the Calukya Pulakeśin II. (A. D. 609 and about 642) in the second quarter of the 7th century; and it seems to have gone out soon after, as the Kūram plates of Narasiṃha's son Parameśvara I. show letters of a much more advanced type. It is met with also in the stone inscription from Jambu in Java; see IA. 4, 356.

The characters of the archaic Grantha in general agree with those of the archaic Kanarese-Telugu (see above, § 29, A), but shew a few peculiarities which remain constant in the later varieties: thus:—

(1) The tha, the central dot of which is converted into a loop, attached to the right side (plate VII, 23, XXI); compare the that of col. XX, where the straight stroke of the Kanarese-Telugu script appears.

<sup>1</sup> The use of northern characters is proved by the Buguda plates, El. 3, 41; compare also B.ESIP. 53, and plate 22 b.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 5, 50, 154; compare B.ESIP. 36, note 2.

I owe the facsimiles of this inscription and of those-used for pl. VII, col. XXIV, and pl. VIII, col. XIII, to HULTZSCH'S kindness; see now his SII. 2, part 3.

<sup>\*</sup> IA. 9, 160, No. 82, 162, No. 85; 13, 48; EI. 1, 397.

<sup>5</sup> Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts, Bombay Gazetteer, vol. 1, part 2, p. 323.

- (2) The  $\delta a$  with the cross-bar converted into a curve or loop and attached to the right side (plate VII, 36, XX—XXII, 45, XXII); compare also the cursive  $\delta a$  of the western script, mentioned above, § 28, A, 7.
- (3) The sa with the cross-bar treated similarly (plate VII, 37, XX); compare the sa of col. XXI, which shows the older form.

The characters of plate VII, cols. XX, XXI, show no closer connection with those of the Prākrit inscriptions of the Pallavas, discussed above in § 20, D.

#### B. - The middle variety.

The earliest inscription of the much more advanced forms of the second variety or the middle Grantha, is found on the Kūram copper-plates (plate VII, col. XXIV) of the reign of Parameśvara I., the adversary of the Western Calukya Vikramāditya I. (A. D. 655—680).¹ [69] Compared with this document, which appears to offer a real clerk's script, the monumental inscription of the Kailāsanātha temple (plate VII, col. XXIII), built according to Fleet² by Narasimha II., the son of Parameśvara I., is retrograde, and shows more archaic forms for several paleographically important letters. On the other hand, the Kaśākūḍi copperplates (plate VIII, col. XIII), incised in the time of Nandivarman who succeeded Mahendra III., the second son of Narasiṃha II., and warred with the Western Calukya Vikramāditya II. (A. D. 733—749),³ agree more closely with the Kūram plates, and offer, besides some archaic forms, also much more advanced ones.

The most important innovations, either constantly or occasionally observable in this second variety of the Grantha, are:—

- (1) The development of a second vertical in A,  $\overline{A}$ , ka and ra (plate VII, 1, 2, 8, 33, XXIII, XXIV; plate VIII, 1, 2, 11, 36, XIII), as well as in medial u and  $\bar{u}$  (plate VII, 31, 38, XXIV; plate VIII, 34, 40, XIII), out of the ancient hook; compare the transitional forms in the facsimiles at IA. 9, 100, 102.
- (2) The connection of one of the dots of I with the upper curved line (plate VII, 3, XXIII, XXIV; plate VIII, 3, XIII, a, b).
- (3) The opening of the top of E (plate VII, 5, XXIV), which however shows closed up forms in col. XXIII, and in plate VIII, 8, XIII.
- (4) The development of a loop to the left of the foot of kha, and the opening up of the right side of the letter (plate VII, 9, XXIII), as in the Kanarese-Telugu script (see above, § 29, B, 2).
- (5) The upward turn of the Serif at the left-hand lines of ga and śa (plate VII, 10, 36, XXIV; plate VII, 13, 39, XIII; not in plate VII, col. XXIII).
- (6) The opening up of the loops of cha (plate VIII, 17, XIII), and perhaps also in the indistinct cha of the Kūram plates, i, line 5.
- (7) The transposition of the vertical of ja to the right end of the top-bar, and the conversion of the central bar into a loop connected with the lowest bar (plate VII, 15, XXIV; plate VIII, 18, XIII; not in plate VII, col. XXIII).
- (8) The incipient opening up of the tops of dha and tha (plate VII, 23, 25, XXIII, XXIV; plate VIII, 26, 28, XIII).
- (9) The opening up of the top of ba, and the transposition of the original top-line to the left of the left-hand vertical (plate VII, 29, XXIV; plate VIII, 32, XIII; not in plate VII, col. XXIII).

<sup>1</sup> HULTZSCH, SII. 1, 144 ff.; FLEET, op. cit. (preceding note), 322 f.

<sup>\*</sup> FLEET, op. cit., 329 f.

<sup>\*</sup> FLEET, op. cit., 323 ff.

- (10) The adoption of the later northern bha (see above, § 24, A, 24), or the development of an exactly similar sign (plate VII, 30, XXIV; plate VIII, 33, XIII; not in plate VII, col. XXIII).
- (11) The combination of the left-hand vertical of sa with the left end of the old sidelimb, and of the right end of the side-limb with the base-stroke (plate VII, 38, XXIV; a transitional form in col. XXII, and a different cursive form in plate VIII, 41, XIII).
- (12) The frequent separation of medial  $\bar{a}$ , e, ai, o, au, from the Mātṛkā (constant in plate VIII, col. XIII), as well as the use of the  $\bar{a}$  standing above the line, as in the northern alphabet of this period and in the Central-Indian script (compare plate VII, 17, 19, 21, 31—33, XXIII; 8, 24, XXIV).
- (13) The expression of the Virāma (as in the Kanarese-Telugu script) by a vertical stroke above, or in the Kaśākūḍi plate also to the right of, the final consonant (plate VII, 41, XXIII; plate VIII, 47, XIII; and compare the facsimiles).
- (14) The transposition of the Anusvāra to the right of the Mātrkā (plate VII, 38, XXIV) below the level of the top-line, as in the Kanarese-Telugu script.
- (15) The occasional development of small angles, open above, at the tops of the verticals, for the left part of which a dot usually appears in plate VIII, col. XIII.

The fully-developed and very constant characteristics of the alphabet of the Küram plates make it probable that they have not arisen within the period of twenty to thirty years, which lies between the issue of the Küram grant and the incision of the much more archaic Bādāmi inscription of Narasiṃha I. (see above, under A). Very likely the Küram alphabet had a longer history.

## C .- The transitional Grantha.

The series of the published datable Pallava inscriptions of the 8th century ends for the present with the Kaśākūdi plates; and facsimiles of documents of the next following centuries [70] are not accessible to me. I am, therefore, unable to exactly fix the time when the third or transitional variety of the Grantha, Burnell's Cola or middle Grantha, came into use, which is found in the inscriptions from the reign of the Bāṇa king Vikramāditya¹ about A. D. 1150 (plate VIII, col. XIV) and of Sundara-Pāṇdya,² A. D. 1250 (plate VIII, col. XV), as well as in other documents.³ It would however appear, both from the Grantha signs occurring in the Gaṅga inscriptions (plate VIII, cols. XI, XII) and from Burnell's Cola-Grantha alphabet of A. D. 1080,⁴ that the new developments originated partly towards the end of the 8th century and partly in the 9th and 10th, about the same time when the Old-Kanarese script (above, § 29, C) was formed.

The most important changes, which the transitional Grantha shows, are as follows: -

- (1) The suppression of the last remaining dot of I (plate VIII, 3, XIV, XV; compare 3, XIII, a).
- (2) The formation of a still more cursive E (8, XIV) out of the Küram letter (plate VII, 6, XXIV).
- (3) The formation of a still more cursive *kha* (plate VIII, 12, XIV, XV), closely resembling the later Kanarese-Telugu sign (plate VIII, 12, III, ff.), out of the letter of plate VII, 9, XXIII.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> EI. 3, 75.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Compare facsimiles at IA. 6, 142; 8, 274; 9, 46 (EI. 3, 79 f.); EI. 3, 228; Ep. Carn. 3, 166; SII. 2, pl. 2; the last inscription and the last but two are older than the 11th century.

<sup>\*</sup> B.ESIP. plate 13.

- (4) The development of a single or double curve to the left of gha (plate VIII, 14, XIV, XV).
- (5) The opening up of the top of ca, and the conversion of its left side into an acute angle (plate VIII, 16, XIV, XV).
  - (6) The addition of a curve to the right end of da (plate VIII, 22, XIV, XV).
- (7) The development of an additional loop in na (plate VIII, 24, XIV, XV), in accordance with the practice of the Tamil alphabet (see below, § 32, A).
  - (8) The complete opening up of the tops of tha and dha (plate VIII, 26, 28, XIV, XV).
  - (9) The development of a curve at the left side of pa (plate VIII, 30, XIV, XV).
- (10) The closing up of the top of ma (plate VIII, 34, XIV, XV), found already in the Ganga inscription of about A. D. 775 (plate VIII, 46, XI).
- (11) The suppression of the circle or loop on the right side of ya (plate VIII, 35, XIV, XV), whereby the letter obtains a very archaic appearance.
- (12) The opening up of the top of va, and the addition of a curve to its left side (plate VIII, 38, XVI, XV).
- (13) The complete separation of medial  $\tilde{a}$ , e, ai, o from the Mātṛkās, and the formation of a separate sign for the second half of au, consisting of two small curves with a vertical on the right.

It is worthy of note that the later alphabet of col. XV. has some more archaic signs than the earlier one of col. XIV. The reason no doubt is that the latter imitates the hand of the clerks of the royal office, while the former shows the monumental forms, suited for a public building. All the Grantha inscriptions imitate characters written with a stilus.

### § 32. — The Tamil and Vatteluttu alphabets; Plate VIII.

#### A. - The Tamil.

The Tamil, as well as its southern and western cursive variety, the Vatteluttu or "roundhand," differs from the Sanskrit alphabet by the absence not only of the ligatures, but also of the signs for the aspirates, for the mediae (expressed by the corresponding tenues), for the sibilants (among which the palatal one is expressed by ca), for the spirant ha, for the Anusvāra and for the Visarga, as well as by the development of new letters for final n, and for ra, la and ia, which latter three characters do not resemble those for the corresponding sounds in the Kanarese-Telugu script. The great simplicity of the alphabet fully agrees with the theories of the Tamil grammarians, and is explained by the peculiar phonetics of the Tamil language. Like all the older Dravidian dialects, the Tamil possesses no aspirates and no spirant. Further, it has no ja, and only one sibilant, which, according to Caldwell, lies between ia, ia and ca, and which, if doubled, becomes a distinct cca. [71] The use of separate signs for the tenues and mediae was unnecessary on account of their mutual convertibility. The Tamil uses in the beginning of words only tenues, and in the middle only double tenues or single mediae. Hence, all words and affixes beginning with gutturals, linguals, dentals and labials, have double forms.1 A knowledge of these simple rules makes mistakes, regarding the real phonetic value of ka, ta, ta and pa, impossible. The use of ligatures probably has been discarded because the Tamil allows even in loan-words no other combinations of consonants but repetitions of the same sound, and because it seemed more convenient to use in these cases the Virāma.2

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> CALDWELL, Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian Languages, 21-27.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Differently BURNELL, ESIP. 44, 47 ff., who considers the Vattelluttu as independent of the Brāhmi, but likewise of Semitic origin, and declares the Tamil alphabet to be the result of a Brahmanical adaptation of the Grantha letters to the phonetical system of the Vattelluttu. This view has already been characterised "as hardly in accordance with the facts" by CALDWELL, op. cit., 9.

The occurrence of signs for the Dravidian liquids, which, though the sounds correspond with those of the older Kanarese and Telugu, differ from the characters of the Kanarese-Telugu script, indicates that the Tamil alphabet is independent of the latter and has been derived from a different source. HULTISCH's important discovery of the Kūram plates, with a large section in the Tamil script and language of the 7th century, confirms this inference. The Tamil alphabet of these plates agrees only in part with their Grantha, and many of its letters offer characteristics of the northern alphabets.

Specific Grantha forms occur in U (plate VIII, 5, XVI; compare plate VII, 4, XXIV); in O (plate VIII, 9, XVI; compare col. XV); in ta (plate VIII, 25—28, XVI; compare plate VII, 22, XXIV); in na (plate VIII, 29, XVI; compare plate VII, 26, XXIV); in ya (plate VIII, 35, XVI; compare plate VII, 32, XXIV); in medial u in ku (plate VIII, 14, XVI; compare 44, XIII); in medial e (in te, plate VIII, 28, XVI; compare khe, plate VII, 9, XXIV); and in the vertical Virāma, which mostly stands above the vowelless consonant but to the right of n and r (compare  $\dot{n}$ , plate VIII, 15, XVI; m, 34;  $\dot{l}$ , 43;  $\dot{l}$ , 49). The Tamil ai (for instance, nai, plate VIII, 29, XVI) appears to be a peculiar derivative from the Grantha ai, the two Mātrās having been placed, not one above the other, but one behind the other.

Unmodified or only slightly modified northern forms appear in A and A (plate VIII, 1, 2, XVI), with the single vertical without a curve at the end (compare plate IV, 1, 2, I ff.), and with the loop on the left, which is found in recently discovered inscriptions from Swāt as well as in the Grantha; in ka (plate VIII, 11—14, XVI; compare plate IV, 7, I ff.); in ca (plate VIII, 16—18, XVI; compare plate III, 11, III); in ta (plate VIII, 20—22, XVI; compare plate IV, 17, VII, VIII); in pa (plate VIII, 30—33, XVI; compare plate IV, 27, I ff.); in ra (plate VIII, 36, XVI; compare plate IV, 33, I ff.); in la (plate VIII, 37, XVI; compare plate IV, 34, VII ff.); in the medial u of pu, mu, yu, vu (plate VIII, 32, 40, XVI; compare plate IV, 27, II), and of ru (plate VIII, 36, XVI; compare plate IV, 33, III); and in the medial u of lū and lū (plate VIII, 44, 46, XVI; compare pū, plate IV, 27, IV).

The  $\dot{n}$  (plate VIII, 15, XVI) is more strongly modified, as it has been formed out of the angular northern  $\dot{n}a$  (plate IV, 11, I ff.) by the addition of a stroke rising upwards on the right; and the ma (plate VIII, 34, XVI) is probably a cursive derivative from the so-called Gupta ma (plate IV, 31, I ff.).

The signs for the Dravidian liquids, too, may be considered as developments of northern signs. The upper portion of the la (plate VIII, 43, 44, XVI) looks like a small cursive northern la, to which a long vertical, descending downwards, has been added on the right. The ra (plate VIII, 47, 48, XVI) may consist of a small slanting northern ra and a hook added to the top. And the la (plate VIII, 45, 46, XVI) is perhaps derived from a northern la (plate IV, 40, II), the end of the horizontal line being looped and connected with the little pendent stroke below; compare also the looped la (read erroneously dha) in the Amarāvatī inscription, J.R.AS. 1891, plate at p. 142.

The origin of the remaining signs is doubtful. Some, such as va (plate VIII, 38—40, XVI) and medial  $\bar{a}$  (see  $k\bar{a}$ , plate VIII, 12, XVI), occur both in northern and in southern scripts. Others are modifications of letters common to the north and the south. The final  $\underline{n}$  (plate VIII, 49, XVI) is evidently the result of a slight transformation of both the northern and the southern  $n\bar{a}$  with two hooks [72] (plate III, 20, V, XX; plate IV, 21, VII f.; plate VII, 21, IV ff.); and from this comes the Tamil  $n\bar{a}$  (plate VIII, 24, XVI) by the addition of another curve. The parent of the peculiar E (plate VIII, 8, XVI) may be either that of plate IV, 5, X ff., or that of plate VII, 5, XXIII. Similarly, the angular medial u in tu (plate VIII, 27, XVI) and in tu (plate VIII, 48, XVI) is due to a peculiar modification of the curve, rising upwards on the right, which is found in connection both with northern and with southern letters (see  $\hat{s}u$ , plate IV,

<sup>1</sup> SH. 1, 147; compare 2, plate 12; the characters of the Vallam Cave inscription, op. cit., 2, plate 10, fully agree,

36, III, XVII, and plate VII, 36, II, IV). Finally, the greatly cursive I (plate VIII, 3, XVI) appears to be the result of a peculiar combination of three curves, which replaced the ancient dots. But an I of this kind has hitherto not been traced.

This analysis of the Tamil alphabet of the 7th century makes it probable that it is derived from a northern alphabet of the 4th or 5th century, which in the course of time was strongly influenced by the Grantha, used in the same districts for writing Sanskrit.

The next oldest specimen of the Tamil script, which is found in the Kaśākūḍi platel of about A. D. 740 (not represented in plate VIII), shows no essential change except in the adoption of the later Tamil ma.

But the inscriptions of the 10th, 11th and later centuries (plate VIII, cols. XVII—XX) offer a new variety, which is more strongly modified through the influence of the Grantha. The ta, pa and va have now the peculiar Grantha forms. Besides, in the 11th century begins the development of the little strokes, hanging down on the left of the tops of ka, na, ca, ta and na. In the 15th century (plate VIII, cols. XIX, XX) these pendants are fully formed, and ka shows a loop on the left. It is worthy of note that in the later Tamil inscriptions the use of the Virāma (Pulli) first becomes rarer and finally ceases,3 while in the quite modern writing the Virāma is again marked by a dot.

## B. - The Vatteluttu.

Among the Vatteluttu inscriptions, the Sāsanas of Bhāskara-Ravivarman in favour of the Jews (pl. VIII, cols. XXI, XXII) and of the Syrians of Kocin,4 as well as the Tirunelli copperplates of the same king,5 have been published with facsimiles. Trusting to rather weak arguments, Burnell ascribes the first-named two documents to the 8th century.6 But the Grantha letters occurring in the Sasana of the Jews belong to the third and latest variety of that alphabet, and the Nagari śā or śī (probably for śrīħ) at the end of the document, to which HULTZSCH has called attention,7 resembles the northern forms of the 10th and 11th centuries (compare plate V, 39, 47, VIII; 48, X).

From a paleographical point of view, the Vatteluttu may be described as a cursive script, which bears the same relation to the Tamil as the modern northern alphabets of the clerks and merchants to their originals, e. g., the Modī of the Marāṭhās to the Bālbodh and the Tākarī of the Dogrās to the Sāradā.8 With the exception of the I, probably borrowed from the Grantha, all its letters are made with a single stroke from the left to the right, and are mostly inclined towards the left. Several among them, such as the na (plate VIII, 15, XXI) with the curve and hook on the left, the va with the open top and the hook on the left (plate VIII, 38, XXI, XXII; compare cols. XVII—XX) and the round ra (plate VIII, 45, 46, XXI, XXII; compare 47, XVII-XX), show the characteristics of the second variety of the Tamil of the 11th and later centuries. And with the usage of the later Tamil inscriptions agrees the constant omission of the Virāma. Some other characters, such as the round ta (plate VIII, 20-23, XXI, XXII; compare col. XVI), the ma with the curve on the right (plate VIII, 34, XXI, XXII; compare col. XVI), and the ya with the loop on the left (plate VIII, 35, XXI, XXII; compare col. XVI), seem to go back to the forms of the earlier Tamil. And three, the rounded U (plate VIII, 5, XXI), the pointed E (plate VIII, 8, XXI) and the na with a single notch (plate VIII, 26, XXI, XXII), possibly show characteristics dating from a still earlier period.

<sup>1</sup> SII. 2, plates 14, 15.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare the facsimiles, of 10th and 11th centuries, at El. 3, 284; SIL 2, plates 2-4; of the 15th century, at SII. 2, plate 5; uncertain, at SII. 2, plate 8; IA. 6, 142; alphabet, B.ESIP. plates 18, 19.

<sup>8</sup> Compare VENKAYYA, EI. 3, 278 ff.

Madras Journ. Lit. Soc. 13, 2, 1; IA. 3, 333; B.ESIP. pl. 32a; EI. 3, 72; alphabet, IA. 1, 229; B.ESIP. pl. 17. 6 IA. 1, 229; B.ESIP. 49; disputed by HULTZSCH, IA. 20, 289.

<sup>5</sup> IA. 20, 292.

<sup>8</sup> Compare above, § 25, note 8.

<sup>7</sup> EI. 3, 67.

Perhaps it may be assumed that the "round-hand" arose already before the 7th century, but was modified in the course of time by the further development of the Tamil and the Grantha scripts. Owing to the small [73] number of the accessible inscriptions, this conjecture is however by no means certain.

The transformation of the Vatteluttu ka (plate VIII, 11—14, XXI, XXII), which seems to be derived from a looped form, is analogous to that of the figure 4 in the decimal system of numeral notation (compare plate IX, B, 4, V—VII, and IX). The curious ta (plate VIII, 25—28, XXI, XXII) has been developed by the change of the loop of the Tamil letter (compare cols. XVII, XVIII) into a notch and the prolongation of the tail up to the head. The still more extraordinary na (plate VIII, 29, XXI) may be explained as a cursive derivative of the later Tamil na with the stroke hanging down from the top.

#### VI. NUMERAL NOTATION.

## § 33. — The numerals of the Kharosthi; Plate I.1

In the Kharosthi inscriptions of the Sakas, of Gondopherres, and of the Kuşanas, from the 1st century B. C. and the 1st and 2nd centuries A. D., as well as in other probably later documents, we find a system of numeral notation (plate I, col. XIV)<sup>2</sup> which Dowson first explained with the help of the Taxila copper-plate.<sup>3</sup>

Its fundamental signs are: — (a) One, two and three vertical strokes for 1, 2, 3. (b) An inclined cross for 4. (c) A sign, similar to the Kharoṣṭhī A, for 10. (d) A double curve, looking like a cursive combination of two 10 (Bayley), for 20. (e) A sign, resembling a Brāhmī ta or tra, for 100, to the right of which stands a vertical stroke, whereby the whole becomes equivalent to IC.

The numbers lying between these elements are expressed by groups, in which the additional ones invariably are placed on the left. Thus, for 5 we have 4 (+) 1; for 6, 4 (+) 2; for 8, 4 (+) 4; for 50, 20 (+) 20 (+) 10; for 60, 20 (+) 20 (+) 20; for 70, 20 (+) 20 (+) 10. Groups formed of the signs for 10 (+) 1 to 10 (+) 9, and 20 (+) 1 to 20 (+) 9, and so forth, are used to express the numerals 11 to 19, and 21 to 29, &c.

The higher numerals beyond 100 are expressed according to the same principle; thus, 103 is 100 (+) 3 or IC III. The sign for 200 consists of 100, preceded on the right by two vertical strokes. And the highest known number is IIC XX XX XX XIV, which means 274.4

The few numeral signs in the Aśoka edicts of Shāhbāzgarhī and Mansehra (plate I, col. XIII)<sup>5</sup> show that in the 3rd century B. C. the Kharoṣṭhī system of numeral notation differed from the later one at least in one important point. Both in Shāhbāzgarhī, where the signs for 1, 2, 4, 5 occur, and in Mansehra, which offers 1, 2, 5, the inclined cross for 4 is absent, and 4 is expressed by four parallel vertical strokes, and 5 by five. It is as yet not ascertainable, how the other signs looked in the 3rd century B. C.

BURNELL and others 6 have stated long ago that the Kharoşthi numerals are of Semitic origin. And it may now be added that probably they have been borrowed from the Aramaeans.

<sup>1</sup> Compare E. C. Bayley, the Genealogy of the Modern Numerals, J.RAS, N.S., 14, 335 ff.; 15, 1 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The signs of col. XIV. have been drawn according to S.NEI, 3, pl. 1 (JA. 1890, I, pl. 15); J.ASB. 58, pl. 10; FLEET's photograph of the Taxila copper-plate (EI. 4, 56); and a gelatine copy of the Wardak vase, kindly presented by S. von Oldenburg.

<sup>3</sup> J.RAS. 20, 228.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Thus CUNNINGHAM. SENART, op. cit., 17, reads 84, doubting the existence of 200 (which however is plain in the autotype of J.ASB. 58, pl. 10), while BARTH reads 284. There is at least one unpublished inscription with 200, and, according to a communication from Bloch, also one with 300.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Drawn according to Burgess' impression of Shahbazgarhī edicts I—III, XIII.

<sup>●</sup> B.ESIP. 64; J.ASB. 32, 150.

and that, with the exception of the cross-shaped 4, they have been introduced together with the Aramaic letters. According to [74] Euting's table of the ancient Aramaic numerals, 1 to 10 are marked, as in the Aśoka edicts, by vertical strokes, which however, contrary to the Indian practice, are divided into groups of three. The Kharoṣṭhī 10 comes close to that of the Teima inscription, 7, and the 20 resembles the sign of the Satrap coins, 3, which is also found in the papyrus Blacas² (5th century B. C.), and somewhat modified in the papyrus Vaticanus. Both the Aramaeans and the Phoenicians used the signs for 10 and 20 in the same manner as the Hindus, in order to express 30, 40, and so forth.

For the Kharoṣṭhī 100, EUTING's table offers no corresponding Aramaic sign, and that given in his edition of the Saqqārah inscription<sup>3</sup> is, as he informs me, not certain. Hence, there remain only the Phoenician symbols to, b, which are suitable for comparison. But the close relationship of Phoenician and Aramaic writing makes it not improbable that the latter, too, possessed in earlier times a 100, standing upright. The Kharoṣṭhī practice of prefixing the signs for 1 and 2 to the 100 is found in all the Semitic systems of numeral notation.

The inclined cross, used to express the 4 in the later Kharosthī inscriptions, is found only in Nabataean inscriptions incised after the beginning of our era, and is used there only rarely for the expression of the higher units. The late occurrence of the sign both in Indian and in Semitic inscriptions makes it probable that both the Hindus and the Semites independently invented this cursive combination of the original four strokes.

# § 34. — The numerals of the Brāhmi; Plate IX.

## A. - The ancient letter-numerals.\*

In the Brāhmī inscriptions and coin-legends we find a peculiar system of numeral notation, the explanation of which is chiefly due to J. Stevenson, E. Thomas, A. Cunningham, Bhāū Dājī and Bhagvānlāl Indrājī.<sup>5</sup> Up to the year A. D. 594-95 it is used exclusively, and later together with the decimal system.<sup>6</sup> It appears also exclusively in the Bower MS. and in the other MSS. from Kashgar,<sup>7</sup> as well as together with the decimal system, — chiefly in the pagination, — in the old MSS. of the Jainas of Western India and of the Bauddhas of Nepāl as late as the 16th century <sup>8</sup> And the Malayāļam MSS. have preserved it to the present day.<sup>9</sup>

In this system, 1 to 3 are expressed by horizontal strokes or cursive combinations of such; 4 to 9, 10 to 90, 100, and 1000, each by a separate sign (usually a Mātṛkā or a ligature); the intermediate and the higher numbers by groups or ligatures of the fundamental signs. In

<sup>1</sup> Nabataische Inschriften, 96 f. 2 Corp. Inscr. Sem., P. Aram. 145 A (pointed out by EUTING).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Palaeographical Society, Or. Ser., plate 63

<sup>\*</sup> Compare Bhagyanlal, IA. 6, 42 ff., B.ESIP. 59 ff., and pl. 23; E C. Bayley, On the Genealogy of the modern Numerals, J.RAS, N.S., 14, 385 ff.; 15, 1 ff

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> J.BBRAS, 5, 35, and pl. 18, P.IA. 2, 80 ff.; C.ASR, 1, XLII, and J.ASB 33, 38, J.BBRAS. 8, 225 ff.; the results of the last article belong chiefly to Bhagvanlal Indrajī, though his name is not mentioned.

<sup>6</sup> Compare below, § 34, B. The latest epigraphic date in letter-numerals is probably the Nevar year 259 in Bendall's Journey in Nepal, 81, No 6; compare also Fleet, GI (CII. 3), 209, note 1.

<sup>7</sup> See HOERNLE, "The Bower MS., 'WZKM. 7, 260 ff. The Bower MS. occasionally has the decimal 3.

<sup>8</sup> Compare Bhagvānlāl's table, IA. 6, 42 f.; Kielhorn, Report on the Search for Sanskrit MSS., 1880-81, VIII. ff.; Peterson, First Report, 57 f, and Third Report, App. I, passim; Leumann, Šilānka's Commentary on the Višegāvašyaka (especially table 35): Cowell and Eggeling, Cat. Sanskrit Buddhist MSS., 52 (J.RAS. 1875); Bendall, Cat. Cambridge Sanskrit Buddhist MSS., LII ff., and table of numerals. In Bendall's Nos. 1049 and 1161, the letter-numerals are also used for dates. The latest date in letter-numerals from Nepāl (Bendall's table of numerals) is A. D. 1583. Letter-numerals are usually only found in Jaina palm-leaf MSS. up to about A. D. 1450; but the Berlin paper MS No. 1709 (Weber, Verzeichniss d. Skt und Prak. Hdschrft., 2, 1, 268; compare D.WA, 37, 250) shows some traces of them.

<sup>9</sup> BENDALL, J.RAS 1896, 789 ff.

order to express figures consisting of tens and units, or of hundreds, tens and units, and so forth, the symbols for the smaller numbers are placed either unconnected to the right of, or vertically below, the higher ones. The first principle is followed in all inscriptions and on most coins, the second on a few coins and in the pagination of all manuscripts. In order to express 200 and 2000, one short stroke is added to the right of 100 and 1000. Similarly, 300 and 3000 are formed by the addition of two strokes to the same elements. [75] Ligatures of 100 and 1000 with the signs for 4 to 9 and 4 to 70, stood for 400 to 900 and 4000 to 70000 (the highest known figure), and the smaller figures are connected with the right side of the larger ones.

The Jaina MSS. offer, however, an exception in the case of 400. In the pagination of their MSS., both the Jainas and the Bauddhas use mostly the decimal figures for 1 to 3 (plate IX A, cols. XIX—XXVI), more rarely the Akṣaras E (eka), dvi, tri, or sva (1), sti (2),  $\acute{s}r\bar{\imath}$  (3), the three syllables of the well-known Mangala, with which written documents frequently begin. Occasionally the same documents combine the naught and other figures of the decimal system with the ancient numeral symbols. Similar mixtures occur also in some late inscriptions. Thus, the year 183 of Devendravarman's Cicacole plates is given first in words and next expressed by the symbol for 100, the decimal 8, and the syllable lo, ie. loka = 3 (see below, § 35, A), while the day of the month, 20, is given only in decimal figures.

In the MSS., the signs of this system are always distinct letters or syllables of that alphabet in which the manuscript is written. They are however not always the same. Very frequently they are slightly differentiated, probably in order to distinguish the signs with numeral values from those with letter values. In other cases there are very considerable variants, which appear to have been caused by misreadings of older signs or dialectic differences in pronunciation. The fact that these symbols really are letters is also acknowledged by the name aksarapalli, which the Jainas occasionally give to this system, in order to distinguish it from the decimal notation, the ahkapalli. A remark of the Jaina commentator Malayagiri (12th century), who calls the sign for 4 the hkasabda, "the word hka," indicates that he really pronounced, not catuh, but hka.

The phonetical values of the symbols in plate IX, A, cols. XIX—XXVI,<sup>7</sup> and of some others, given by Bendall (B.), Bhagvānlāl Indrāji (Bh.), Kielhorn (K.), Leumann (L.), and Peterson (P., see note 8 on page 77 above), are:—

 $4 = \hbar ka$  (XIX; compare L., p. 1); with intentional differentiation,  $r\hbar ka$  (L., p. 1.) and  $r\hbar k\bar{a}$  (XXV); with na for  $\hbar a$  and additions, nka (XXVI; B., Bh.), rnka (XXIV; compare K.), or pka (XXII), or nka (XXIII; B.).

5 = tr (XIX, XXI, XXV, XXVI; B., Bh., K.); with intentional differentiation, rtr (Bh., K); with a mistaken interpretation of the top-stroke as  $\bar{\sigma}$ , rtr  $\bar{\sigma}$  (XXIV); with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare J.RAS. 1889, 128.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 6, 44; Kielhorn, Report for 1880-81, X; Peterson, First Report, 57.

<sup>8</sup> KIELHORN, loc. cit.; BENDALL, Catalogue, LIII.

<sup>\*</sup> Compare facsimile in EL 3, 133, and see the Additions and Corrections of that volume; the signs have been given in pl. IX, col. XV, under 2, 3, 8 b, 100 a. For other cases of mixtures, see Fleet, GI (CII. 3), 292, and JA. 14, 351, where the date is, however, 800 4 9 = 849.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Oral information.

<sup>7</sup> Preparation of Plate IX, A, cols. XIX—XXVI:— Col. XIX; from facsimiles in HOERNLE'S "The Bower MS."

Cols. XX-XXIII, and XXVI; cuttings from BENDALL's Table of Numerals, Nos. 1049, 1702, 836, 1643, 1683.

<sup>6</sup> IA. 6, 47.

Col. XXIV; drawn according to the tables of BHAGVANLAL, KIELHORN, and LEUMANN.

Col. XXV; drawn from the same sources; but 8, 9, 100, are cuttings from Zachariae's photograph of the Sāhasān kacarita of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Col. XXVI; see above, under cols. XX-XXIII.

- a misinterpretation of the curved ta (compare the sign of B.'s No. 1464), also hr (compare the sign of B.'s No. 1645 ff.) or hva (XXIII).
- 6 = phra (XIX, XXI, XXVI; B., Bh.) or phu (K.); and with intentional differentiation, rphu or rphru (XXIV; K.); with a misinterpretation of an old pha, also ghra (XXII); and with dialectic softening of the tenuis, bhra (XXIII; compare B., p. LIV).
- 7 = gra (XIX, XXI, XXVI; Bh.) or  $gr\bar{a}$  (XXV; B., Bh., K); with intentional differentiation and misinterpretation of the ra-stroke,  $rgg\bar{a}$  (XXIV; P.); with misinterpretation of ga, bhra (XX; compare B., p. LIV) or  $\bar{n}a$  (XXIII; compare B., LIV).
- 8 = hra (XIX, XXI, XXIII, XXVI; B., Bh.; partly with irregular addition of the ra-stroke to the hook of ha) or hrā (XXV; B., Bh., K.); and with intentional differentiation, rhra (K.) or rhrā (XXIV; K.).
  - 9 = O(XIX, XXI, XXIII, XXIV, XXVI; B., Bh.) or Oin(XXV; K.).
- 10 = nr (XIX), formed out of the ancient  $th\bar{u}$  (cols. IV—VI) through the opening of the circle of tha; or  $d\bar{u}$  (XX, XXIII; B., Bh.), the Nepalese representative of older la (cols. X, XI; compare IA. 6, 47), which likewise is a derivative from  $th\bar{u}$ ; or, especially in Nāgarī MSS., l (XXI, XXV, XXVI; Bh, K.), through a misinterpretation of la; and with intentional differentiation, rl (XXIV; K.).
- $20 = tha^2$  or  $th\bar{a}$  (XIX.—XXI, XXIII, XXIV, XXVI; B., Bh., K.); or with intentional differentiation, rtha and  $rth\bar{a}$  (XXV; K.).
- $30 = la \text{ or } l\bar{a} \text{ (XIX—XXI, XXIII, XXIV, XXVI; B., Bh., K., P); or with intentional}$  [76] differentiation, rla and  $rl\bar{a} \text{ (XXV; K.)}$ .
- 40 = pta and  $pt\bar{a}$  (XX, XXI, XXIII, XXIV, XXVI; B., Bh., K.); or with intentional differentiation, rpta and  $rpt\bar{a}$  (XXV; K.).
- 50 = Anunāsika (? Bhagvānlāl), but corresponding only in col. XXIV. to an actually traceable form of this nasal (IA. 6, 47); occasionally turned round (XX; B.: XXIII; K.).
- 60 = cu, frequent in Nepalese MSS. (XX, XXI, XXIII,), or thu, regular in Nāgarī MSS. (XXV, XXVI; Bh, K); and with intentional differentiation,  $rthu^3$  (XXIV; K.).
- $70 = c\bar{u}$ , frequent in Nepalese MSS. (XX, XXI, XXIII; B., Bh.) or  $th\bar{u}$ , regular in Nāgarī MSS. (XXV, XXVI); and with intentional differentiation,  $rth\bar{u}$  (XXIV; K.).
- 80 = Upadhmānīya with one central bar (XXIII, XXVI; B., Bh.: compare plate IV, 46, III), or later modified forms of that sign (XXI, XXIV; Bh., K.), which appear also in MSS. (K.) and in inscriptions (plate IV, 46, XXIII).
- 90 = Upadhmānīya with two cross-shaped bars (XXI, XXIII, XXVI; compare plate VII, 46, V, VI), and cursive forms of that sign (XXIV), or perhaps Jihvāmūlīya (XXV; Bh.) derived from the ma-like sign of plate VII, 46, III, XIII.
- 100 = su in Nāgarī MSS. (XXIV, XXV; Bh., K.); or A in Nepalese MSS., owing to a misinterpretation of su (XX, XXIII, B., Bh.); or lu in Nepalese and Bengālī MSS., the result of another misinterpretation (XXI, XXVI; B., Bh.).
- $200 = s\bar{u}$  in Nāgarī MSS. (XXIV, XXV; Bh., K.), or  $\bar{A}$  in Nepalese MSS. (XX, XXIII; B., Bh.), or  $l\bar{u}$  in Nepalese and Bengālī MSS. (XXVI; Bh., B).
- $300 = s\bar{u} \bar{a}$  in Nāgarī MSS. (XXIV, XXV; Bh.: read  $st\bar{a}$  by K.), or  $\bar{A} \hat{a}$  in Nepalese MSS. (XX).
  - 400 = sū-o (XXV; read sto by K.) in Nāgarī MSS.

<sup>1</sup> For this pha, compare plate VI, 33, V.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Common also in the Bower MS. Peterson's gha is due to a misreading of the old that.

<sup>8</sup> PETERSON'S rghu is a misreading.

In the inscriptions, the phonetical values of the signs often differ from those in the MSS. and vary very considerably, and almost every one of the vertical and horizontal columns (plate IX, A, I-XVIII) shows at least some, occasionally a great many, cursive or intentionally modified forms, which possess hardly any resemblance to letters :-

4 = ka (I), ki (III, in 400, 4000; IV, A; V, A; VI, B), kri (V, B; IX, A), pka (III, A; VI, A; VIII, A; IX, B), hka (X, A), tha (facsimile IA. 5, 154), yka.

5 = tra, mostly with irregular addition of the ra-stroke to the vertical of ta (V, A; VIII, A, B; IX, B; X, A; XV, A), trā (VII, A), tu (IX, A), nu (IV, B), na, nā (XI, A, B), tr (XIII, A), hr (XIII, B; XIV, A; XVII, A), hra (XVI, A), together with two cursive signs without phonetic value in V, A, B.

6 = ja,  $sa^2$  (I, II; compare plate II, 15, III; 39, VII), phra (III, in 6000; IV, V), phrā (IX, XI), phā (XIII), pha (XIV), together with four cursive signs (VI-VIII, XV), among which the first is probably derived from ja, the second from sa, and the other two from phra.

7 = gra or gu (III—VI, IX—XI, XIII, XV), ga (VII) with a cursive sign (XII) derived from a gra like that in XIII.

8 = hra with irregular addition of the ra-stroke to the end of ha (IV, A, B; VI, A), ha (VI, B), hā (VII, A; X), hrā (XI, XVII, XVIII) or in eastern inscriptions pu (VIII, B; XV, A; XVI) probably a cursive derivative from hra, together with five cursive signs without phonetic value (V, A; VIII, A; IX, A, B; XV, B), among which the second and the fifth are derived from pu, the first from hra, the third from  $hr\bar{a}$ , and the fourth from  $h\bar{a}$ .

9 = 0; really occurring letter-forms in col. V (compare plate IV, 6, IX), in col. VI (compare AU, plate VII, 7, X), in col. IX (compare plate VI, 13, I), in cols. XI, XII (compare plate V, 47, IX), in col. XIV (compare plate V, 9, XV), in col. XVII (compare plate VI, 13, V ff.), different from the most ancient form (III, IV) in cols. VII. and XIII, cursive in cols. X. and XVI.

 $10 = i\hbar \bar{u}^3$  (III, in 10000; IV, A, B, V, A; VI, A), hence a cursive sign, derived by the opening of the circle of tha (V, B; VI, B; VII A; VIII, IX), which later is converted into a (X, XI, A, B), or into rya (XVI, A), or, as in the MSS., into ! (XIII, A, B; XVII, A), or into kha and ce (XV. A, B).

20 = tha (III, in 20000; XV), or, as in the MSS., tha,  $th\bar{a}$ , of the type of the period.

30 = la, as in the MSS.; occasionally with small modification.

1 Preparation of Plate IX, A, cols. I-XVIII · -

Col. I; the 4, cutting from BURGESS' facsimile of the Kalsī edict XIII, El. 2, 435; the 6, 50, 200, drawn according to facsimiles of the Sahasram and Rupnath edicts, IA. 6, 155 ff.

Col. II; outtings from facsimile of the Siddapura edict, EI, 3, 138.

Col. III; cuttings from facsimiles of Nanaghat inscriptions, B.ASRWI. 5, pl. 51.

Col. IV; cuttings from facsimiles of Nasık inscriptions, B.ASRWI. 4, pl. 52, Nos. 5, 9, 18, 19, pl. 53, Nos. 12-14: the 70 drawn according to the Girnar Prasasti, B.ASRWI. 2, pl. 14.

Col. V; drawn according to facsimiles of Kşatrapa coms, J.RAS. 1890, plate at 639.

381 ff.; 2, 201 ff.

Col. VIII; cuttings from facsimiles at B.ASRSI 1, pl. 62, and EL. 1, 2 ff.

<sup>2</sup> Probably to be read thu; not as a modification of phra or phu.

Col. VI, VII; cuttings from facsimiles at EI. 1,

Cols. IX, X; cuttings from facsimiles at F.GI (CII. 3). Nos. 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 19, 23, 23, 59, 63, 70, 71.

Col. XI; cuttings from facsimiles at F.GI(CII.3), Nos. 38, 39; IA. 6, 9 ff, and other Valabhi inscriptions.

Col. XII; drawn according to facsimile at J. BBRAS. 16, 108.

Cols. XIII, XIV; drawn according to facsimiles at IA. 9, 164 ff

Col. XV; drawn according to facsimiles at IA. 13, 120 ff; EI. 3, 127 ff.

Col. XVI, cutting from facsimiles at F.GI(CII.3), Nos. 40, 41, 55, 53, 81.

Col. XVII; cutting from facsimiles at IA. 15, 112, 141

Col. XVIII; drawn according to facsimile at J ASB. 40, pl. 2.

Cuttings reduced by one-third.

3 Thus Bayley, doubtfully; for the  $\overline{u}$  of the sign in IV, B, compare  $n\overline{u}$ , plate III, 25, 6.

- 40 = pta, as in the MSS., for which occasionally a cursive cross (V, A) or a sa through a transposition of the ta (V, B; XI, B; XV).
- 50 = [77] Anunāsika (? Bhagvānlāl), as in the MSS., facing either the right or the left, occasionally with small modification.
  - 60 = pu (IX), together with four different cursive signs without phonetic value.
- $70 = p\bar{u}$  (IV—VI; IX; XI, A), or  $pr\bar{a}$  (XII), together with a cursive cross (VII) and another cursive sign (XI, B), both possibly derived from  $p\bar{u}$ .
- 80 = Upadhmānīya with a diagonal bar, and cursive forms of the Upadhmānīya exactly as in the MSS.
  - 90 = Upadhmānīya with the central cross, as in the MSS.
- 100 = either su (I, in 200; III; IX, A, B; X; XIII, in 300; XIII, in 400; XIV, in 400), for which, through a misreading, appears A in the Nepāl inscriptions of the 7th and 8th centuries (XIII, A, B; XIV, in 300), and lu in eastern inscriptions of the 6th and later centuries (X, in 200; XVIII, in 200), or śu (probably owing to the dialectic permutation of śa and sa) in the western and Kalinga inscriptions (IV; V; XI; XII, in 400; XV, A, B), for which, through a misreading, O (XVII, A, B) appears in late northern inscriptions.
- 200 and 300 are formed by the addition of respectively one and two horizontal bars to the right of the aksara for 100; but in the Rūpnāth sign (I) by the prolongation of the vertical of sa. A distinct  $\bar{u}$ , as in the MSS, appears only in the 200 of col. XVIII.
- 400 = su-ki (III), or su-pka (X; XIII; XIV), but  $\dot{su}$ -pka (XI).  $500 = \dot{su}$ -tra (IV).  $600 = \dot{su}$ -pka (XII). 700 = su-gra (III).
- 1,000 = ro (III), or cu (probable in IV, distinct in XV, in 8,000), or dhu (IV, in 2,000: IV, in 70,000). 2,000 and 3,000 = dhu with one or two horizontal strokes (IV). 4,000 = ro-hi (III), or dhu-hi (IV). 6,000 = ro-phra (III). 8,000 = dhu-hra (IV), or cu-pu (XVI).
  - $10,000 = ro \cdot th\bar{u}$  (III).  $20,000 = ro \cdot tha$  (III). 70,000 = dhu with the cursive sign for 70.

The above details show: — (1) That the inscriptions of all periods, even the Aśoka edicts in the case of 100, differ from the MSS. by offering, side by side with distinct letters, numerous cursive or intentionally modified forms, and that, in the case of 50 and 60, just the older inscriptions show no real Akṣaras.

- (2) That, excepting 7, 9, 30, 40, 80, 90, the phonetical value of the letters varies already since the earliest times, and that in many cases, as in those of 6, 10, 60, 70, 100, 1000, the variations are very considerable.
- (3) That occasionally, as in the case of 10, 60, 70, the distinct letters, used in the later inscriptions and the MSS., are derived in various ways from cursive signs without a phonetical value.

These facts, as well as the incompleteness of our knowledge of the most ancient forms, make an explanation of the origin of the system for the present very difficult. BHAGVĀNLĀL INDRĀJĪ, who first attempted the solution of the problem, conjectured that the numeral symbols of the Brāhmī are of Indian origin, and due to a peculiar use of the Mātrkās and certain ligatures for numeral notation. But he declared himself unable to find the key of the system.

<sup>1</sup> Earliest instance in the inscription of Mahanaman, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 71; 200 in col. X.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare also the date of the Gujarāt Calukya inscription, Seventh Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 211 ff.; and the facsimile at J.BBRAS, 16, 1 ff.; and the Valabhī form at EI. 3, 320, 1. 14, where a śa of the period, mutilated on the left, is used; and the date of the Kota inscription, IA. 14, 351, with a distinct śa of the 9th century. The form su occurs in a western inscription, lately found at Udepur by G. H. Ojhā, in the numeral sū-u or sū-ā, = 300.

In 1877, I agreed with him, and Keen' likewise concurred, but explained the 4 and 5 as combinations of four and five strokes, arranged in the form of letters. But Burnell differed entirely. He denied that the older "cave-numerals," with the exception of rare cases, resemble letters, and dwelt strongly on the impossibility of finding a principle, according to which the Aksaras of the MSS, have been converted into numerals. He further pointed out the general agreement of the principles of the Indian system with those of the Demotic notation of the Egyptians. From this fact, as well as from the resemblance [78] of the Demotic signs for 1 to 9 to the corresponding Indian symbols, he inferred that the "cave-numerals" have been borrowed from Egypt, and after further modifications have been converted into Akṣaras. Finally, E. C. Bayley tried to show in his lengthy essay, quoted above, that, though the principles of the Indian system have been derived from the hieroglyphic notation of the Egyptians, the majority of the Indian symbols have been borrowed from Phoenician, Bactrian, and Akkadian figures or letters, while for a few a foreign origin is not demonstrable.

BAYLET'S explanation offers great difficulties, inter alia by the assumption that the Hindus borrowed from four or five different, partly very ancient and partly more modern, sources. But the comparative table of the Egyptian and Indian signs given in his paper, and his remarks about the agreement of their methods in marking the hundreds, induce me to give up BHAGVĀNLĀL'S hypothesis, and to adopt, with certain modifications, the view of BURNELL, with whom also BARTH concurs.<sup>2</sup> It seems to me probable that the Brāhma numeral symbols are derived from the Egyptian Hieratic figures, and that the Hindus effected their transformation into Akṣaras, because they were already accustomed to express numerals by words (compare below, § 35, A).

This derivation, the details of which, however, still present difficulties and cannot be called certain, has been given in Appendix II. to the 2nd edition of my Indian Studies No. III. But two other important points may be considered as certain ·— (1) That the varying forms in the Aśoka edicts show these numerals to have had a longer history in the 3rd century B. C.; and (2) that the signs have been developed by Brahmanical schoolmen, since they include two forms of the Upadhmānīya, which without doubt has been invented by the teachers of the Sikṣā.

#### B. - The decimal notation.

For the decimal notation, now occasionally called ankapalli, the Hindus used originally the ankas or the units of the ancient system, together with the cipher or naught,3 which originally consisted of the śūnyabindu, the dot (marking a blank, see below, § 35, E), called by abbreviated names śūnya and lindu (see BW.). Very likely this system is an invention of the Hindu mathematicians and astronomers, made with the help of the Abacus (Burnell, Bayley). If HOERNLE's very probable estimate of the antiquity of the arithmetical treatise, contained in the Bakhshāli MS., is correct,4 its invention dates from the beginning of our era or even earlier. For, in that work the decimal notation is used throughout. At all events, it was known to Varāhamihira (6th century A. D.), who employs the word anka, "the decimal figures," in order to express the numeral 9 (Pascasiddhantika, 18, 33; compare below, § 35, A). Its most important element, the cipher or naught, is mentioned in Subandhu's Vāsavadattā, which Bāṇa (about A. D. 620) praises as a famous book. Subandhu compares the stars with "ciphers (sunyabindavah) which the Creator, while calculating (the value of) the universe, on account of the absolute worthlessness of the Samsara marked with his chalk, the crescent of the moon, all over the firmament which the darkness made similar to a skin blackened with ink."5 The cipher, known to Subandhu, of course consisted of a dot, like that of the Bakshāli MS (plate IX, B, col. IX.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> IA. 6, 143.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B ESIP, 65, note 1.

S Compare Hoernie's explanation, Seventh Oriental Congress, Aryan Section, 182; IA. 17, 85.

<sup>4</sup> IA, 17, 36.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Vāsavadattā (ed. F. E. HALL), p. 182.

The earliest epigraphic instance of the use of the decimal notation occurs in the Gurjara inscription of the Cedi year 346, or A. D. 595, where the signs (plate IX, B, col. I) are identical with the numeral symbols of the country and of the period (compare the Valabhī column of plate IX, A). The same remark applies to the 2 in the date of the month of the Cicacole plate mentioned on page 78 above, in which document we find also the later circular cipher and [79] a decimal 8 in the shape of a cursive sign derived from pu. Another inscription of the 8th century, the Sāmāngad plates of Sakasaṃvat 675, or A. D. 754, offers only strongly modified cursive signs (plate IX, B, col. II.).

In the specimens<sup>3</sup> (plate IX, B, cols. III—VIII, XIII) from inscriptions of the 9th and later centuries, when the use of the decimal figures is the rule, we have likewise only cursive signs, which in the 11th and 12th centuries (compare cols. VII, VIII, and XIII) show local differences in the west, east and south. But all their figures have been derived either directly from the letter-numerals of the older system, or from letters with the same phonetic value. The last remark applies to the 9 of cols. III, V, VI ff., which is identical with the signs for O used in later inscriptions in the word Om (compare, e.g., IA. 6, 194 ff., Nos. 3—6).

Among the specimens from MSS. (plate IX, B, cols. IX—XII), the decimal figures of the Bakhshāli MS. show the ancient letter-numerals for 4 and 9.

The Tamil numerals, which greatly differ from the usual ones and preserve the old signs for 10, 100 and 1000, have been given by Burnell, ESIP. plate 23 (compare id. page 68). Those from Kābul are contained in the table accompanying E. C. Bayley's paper, Numismatic Chronicle, 3rd Series, 2, 128 ff.

## § 35. - Numeral notation by words and letters.

#### A. — The word-numerals.

[80] In many manuals of astronomy, mathematics and metrics, as well as in the dates of inscriptions and of MSS, the numerals are expressed by the names of things, beings or ideas, which, naturally or in accordance with the teaching of the \tilde{a}stras, connote numbers. The earliest traces of this custom have been discovered by A. Weber in the Srautasūtras of Kātyāyana and Lātyāyana.\(^4\) A few examples are found in the Vedic Jyotisa and in the arithmetic of the Bakhshāli MS. More numerous instances occur in Piūgala's manual of metrics, and from about A. D. 500 we find, first in Varāhamihira's Pañcasiddhāntikā, a system of this description, which, gradually becoming more and more perfect, extends to the cipher or naught, and to nearly all the numbers between I and 49. During this latter period any synonym may be used for the words expressing numbers, and in some cases the same word may be used for different numbers. If the words are compounds, they may be represented by their first or second part.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare facsimiles at EI. 2, 19 ff.; and see Fleet in GI (CII. 3). 209, note 1.

<sup>2</sup> The apparent difference in 6 is due to a fault of the impression.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Preparation of Plate IX, B, cols. III—XIII (for cols. I, II, see the text, above); all hand-drawn:—

Col. III; from facsimiles of Rāṣtrakūṭa inscriptions at Kaṇheri, Nos. 15, 43 A, B.

Col. IV; from facsimile of the Rāstrakūṭa copperplate from Torkhede, EI. 3, 56.

Col. V; the 3 and 6 from an impression of the Haddala copper-plate (IA. 12, 190); the 4, 7, 9, 0, from facsimile of the Asni inscription, IA. 16, 174, the 5 and 8 from facsimile of the Morbi copper-plate, IA. 2, 257.

Col. VI; from facsimile of the Sāvantvādī copperplate, IA. 12, 266.

Col. VII; from facsimile of the Chaulukya copperplate, IA. 12, 202.

Col. VIII; the 1, 3, 8, from the Gayā inscription, IA, 10, 342; the 5 from C.MG. pl. 28, A.

Cols, IX, X; Hoernle's Bakhshāli figures.

Cols XI, XII; from BENDALL's table of numeral in Catalogue of the Cambridge Sanskrit Buddhist MSS.

Col. XIII; from B.ESIP. pl. 23, Telugu and Kanarese numerals, 11th century.

<sup>4</sup> W.IS, 8, 166 f.

This system of numeral notation, of course, has been invented in order to facilitate the composition of metrical handbooks of astronomy and so forth. The most important words, used to express numbers, are as follows:1-

The cipher, 0, is expressed by (a) śūnya (Var., Ber.), "a void;" (b) ambara, ākāśa, &c.. "the (empty) space of heaven" (Var., Ber., Bro.), ananta (Bro.).

1 is expressed by (a) rūpa (Jyo., Bakh, Ping., Var.) "one piece;" (b) indu, śasin, śitaraśmi, &c. (Var., Ber., Bro.), or abbreviated into raśmi (Ber.), "the moon;" (c) bhū, mahī, &c. (Var, Ber, Bro., Bur.), "the earth;" (d) ādi (Ber.), "beginning;" (e) pitāmaha (Ber.). "Brahman;" (f) nāyaka (Bro.), "the hero" (of a play); (g) tanu (Bro.), "the body."

2 is expressed by (a) yama, yamala (Var., Ber.), "twins:" (b) asiin, dasra (Var., Ber.). "the two Aśvins;" (c) pakṣa (Var., Ber), "the two wings, or the halves of the body;" (d) kara, &c. (Var., Bur.), "the hands;" (e) nayana, &c. (Var., Ber., Bur.), "the eyes;" (f) bāhu (Bro.), "the arms;" (g) karṇa (Bro.), "the ears;" (h) kuṭumba (Bro.), "the family." i. e., husband and wife; (i) ravicandrau (Ber.), "sun and moon."

3 is expressed by (a) agni, hotr,3 &c (Var., Ber., Bro., Bur.), "the sacrificial fires;" (b) rāmāh (Var., Bro.), "the three Rāmas" (of epic poetry); (e) guṇa (Var.), triguṇa (Ber.), "the qualities of matter;" (d) trijagat, loka (Ber.), "the three worlds;" (e) trikāla (Ber.), "the three times; " (f) trigata4 (Ber.), "sounds, &c., with three meanings;" (g) suhodarāh (Bro.), "the three uterine brothers;" (h) trinetra, &c. (Bro.), "the three eyes of Siva."

4 is expressed by (a) aya, āya (Jyo.), kṛta 6 (Var., Ber), "the (four) dice;" (b) veda, śruti (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the Vedas;" (c) abdhi, jaladhi, &c. (Ping., Var., Ber., Bur.). abbreviated jala (Var.), dadhi (Ber.), "the oceans;" (d) dis (Ber.), "the cardinal points;" (e) yuga (Bro.), "the (four) ages of the world;" (f) bandhu (Bro.), "the (four) brothers;"7 (g) kostha (Bro.), (?); (h) varna (manuscript), "the (four) principal castes."

5 is expressed by (a) indriya, &c. (Ping., Var., Bur.), "the organs of sense;" [81] (b) artha, visaya, &c. (Var., Ber.), "the objects of the senses;" (c) bhūta (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the elements;" (d) isu, &c. (Var., Ber., Bur), "the arrows of Kāma;" (e) pāṇdava (Ber.), abbreviated (pāṇdu)-suta, putra (Bro.), "the (five) Pāṇdu sons;" (f) prāṇa (Bro.), "the vital airs; "(g) ratna8 (Ber.) "the (five) jewels."

6 is expressed by (a) rasa (Bakh., Ping., Var., Ber.), "the (six) flavours;" (b) rtu (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the seasons;" (c) anga (Ber.), "the auxiliary sciences of Vedic studies;" (d) māsārdha (Ber.), "one half of the (twelve) months;" (e) daisana, &c. (Bro.), "the (six) philosophical systems;" (f) raga (Bro.), "the (six) principal tunes;" (g) ari (Bro.), "the (internal) foes (of men); "(h)  $k\bar{a}ya^9$  (inscription), "the bodies" (?).

7 is expressed by (a) rsi, muni (Ping., Var), "the (seven) seers;" or by atri, the first among them (Bro.); (b) svara (Ping., Var., Bro.), "the notes" (of the octave); (c) asia

1 The abbreviations mark the sources from which the words have been collected, as follows:

Bakh. = the Bakhshāli MS., Hoernle, 130.

Ber. = Berum's India, Sachau, 1, 178.

Bro = C. P. Brown's list, as quoted by Burnell, ESIP. 77 f.

Bur. = BURNELL's additions, ESIP. 77 f.

Jyo. = the Jyotisa, WEBER's edition, 6

Var. = Varāhamihıra's Paūchasiddhantikā, THI-BAUT's edition.

A few other instances are given from manuscripts and inscriptions.

The numerous synonyms, being unnecessary for Sanskritists, have been mostly omitted; but such Ping. = Pingala, Weber, Indishe Studien, 8, 167 f. | omissions have been indicated by "&c."

<sup>2</sup> Sūnya may either mean "the empty place on the Abacus," or be an abbreviation of sūnyabindu (see above, § 34, B).

\* See Pasicasiddbantika, 8, 6. This is equivalent to agm, because Agni is the Hotr-priest of the gods.

\* See BRW. sub hac roce.

5 Yudhisthira, Bhima and Arjuna (CARTELLIERI). 6 Thus BRW. sub hac voce; possibly krta may stand for krtada yuga. 7 Rāma, Laksmana, &c.

8 See APTE, Sanskrit Dictionary, sub hac roce.

9 Compare EI 1, 824, line 48.

- (Var., Bro.), "the horses" (of the sun); (d) aga, &c. (Var., Ber., Bur.), "the (primeval) mountains;" (e) dhātu (Bro.), "the elements" (of the body); (f) chandas (Bro.), "the (classes of the) metres;" (g) dhī (Ber.), (?); (h) kalatra (Bro.), (?).
- 8 is expressed by (a) anustubh (Ping.), a metre with octo-syllabic Pādas or lines; (b) vasu (Ping., Var.), "the Vasu gods;" (c) ahi, &c. (Ber., Bur.), "the (eight classes of) snakes;" (d) gaja, &c. (Ber., Bur.), "the elephants (guarding the eight points of the horizon);" (e) mangala, bhūti (Ber., Bro.), "the (eight kinds of) auspicious things;" (f) siddhi (manuscript), "the supernatural powers."
- 9 is expressed by (a) aika (Var., Bro.), "the decimal figures;" (b) nanda (Var., Ber.), "the (nine) Nandas;" (c) chidra, &c. (Ber.), "the cavities of the body;" (d) go, graha (Ber., Bro., Bur.), "the planets;" (e) nidhi (Bur.), "the treasures (of Kubera);" (f) pavana (Ber.), (?).
- 10 is expressed by (a) diśaḥ, &c. (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the (ten) points of the horizon;" (b) rāvaṇaśiras (Ber.), "the heads of Rāvaṇa;" (c) avatāra (Bro.), "the incarnations (of Viṣṇu);" (d) karman (Ber.), "the (ten Gṛḥya)-ceremonies;" (e) khendu (Ber.), cipher (0) and moon (1), i.e. 10.2
- 11 is expressed by (a) rudra (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the (eleven) Rudras," or by īśa, śiva, &c. (Var., Ber.), the first of the eleven Rudras; (b, c) akṣauhiṇī, lābha (Bro.), (?).
- 12 is expressed by (a) āditya, arka, &c. (Ping., Var., Ber.), "the (twelve) sun-gods." or "suns;" (b) vyaya (Bro.), (?).
- 13 is expressed by (a)  $vi\acute{s}vedev\bar{a}\dot{h}$ , abbreviated  $vi\acute{s}va$  (Var., Ber.), "the (thirteen) all-gods;" or by  $k\bar{a}ma$ , the most famous among them (Bro.); (b) atijagati (Var.), a metre with thirteen syllables in each Pāda; (c) aghosa (Jagadūcarita),4 "the surd consonants."
- 14 is expressed by (a) manu (Var., Ber.), "the (fourteen) Manus;" (b) indra (Var., Ber.), "the (fourteen) Indras;" (c) loka (Bro.), "the (fourteen) worlds."
- 15 is expressed by (a) tithi (Var., Ber.), "the lunar days (of a half-month);" (b) ahan (Bro.), "the solar days (of a half-month);" (c) pakṣa (Bro.), "half a month (fifteen days)."
- 16 is expressed by (a) asti (Var., Ber.), a metre with sixteen syllables in the Pāda; (b) bhūpa, &c. (Var., Ber.), "the (famous sixteen) kings;" (c) halā (Bro.), "the digits of the moon."
- 17 to 19 are expressed by atyaşti (Ber.), dhṛti, atidhṛti (Var., Ber.), metres with seventeen to nineteen syllables in the Pāda.
- 20 is expressed by (a) kṛti (Var., Ber.), a metre with twenty syllables in the Pāda; (b) nakha (Var., Ber.), "the nails (of the hands and feet)."
  - 21 is expressed by (a) utkṛti (Ber.); (b) svarga (Bro.), "heaven."
  - 22 is expressed by  $j\bar{a}ti$  (Bro.), (?).
  - 24 is expressed by jina (Var., Ber.), "the (twenty-four) Tirthamkaras of the Jainas."
  - 25 is expressed by tattva (Ber.), "the principles of the Sānkhya philosophy."
  - 26 is expressed by utkṛṭi (Var.), a metre with twenty-six syllables in the Pāda.
  - 27 is expressed by bhasamūha (Jyo.), nakṣatra (Bro.), "the lunar mansions."
  - 32 is expressed by danta, &c. (Var., Bro.), "the teeth."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare astamangala.

<sup>2</sup> STEN Konow, Deutsche Litt. Int., 1897.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Compare F. E. Hall, Visnupurāna, 3, 192. 
<sup>4</sup> SB.WA. 126, 5, 58.

<sup>5</sup> Described in the sodasarajakiya-parvan of the Mahabharata, 7, 65-71 (Cartellier).

s Probably a mistake for prakets, a metre with twenty-one syllables in the Pada.

33 is expressed by sura, &c. (Var., Bro.), "the gods."

- 40 is expressed by naraka (Var., Pañcasiddhāntıkā, 4, 6), "the hells."
- 49 is expressed by tana (Bro.), "the notes."
- [82] In the Jyotişa and in the arithmetic of the Bakshāli MS., only single words are used to indicate numbers.

In Pingala's and other metrical manuals, the words with numeral meanings often form (sometimes together with ordinary numerals) Dvandva compounds, which must be dissolved by "or." Thus, vedartusanudrāh means "4 or 6 or 4."

In the works of Varāhamihira and other astronomers, we find, in addition, longer Dvandva compounds, consisting of such word-numerals (be it alone, or associated with ordinary numerals), which have to be dissolved by "and," and then yield long rows of figures to be read from the right to the left. Thus, in the Pañcasiddhāntikā, 4, 44, we have:—

[0 0 4 4 1 
$$kha-kha-veda-samudra-sitarasmayah = 14,400$$
;

and in 9, 9 of the same work, we have: -

0 0 16 2 
$$kha-kh-\bar{a}s!i-yam\bar{a}h = 21,600.$$

Such Dvandva compounds, which presuppose the existence of the decimal notation, are used also for the dates of inscriptions. Dates expressed in this manner, are found in the Kamboja and Campā inscriptions of the 7th century.<sup>2</sup> In Java they occur in the 8th century.<sup>3</sup> And about the same time appears the first trace of such a notation in an Indian document, the Cicacole copper-plate inscription mentioned on page 78 above, where lo, = 3, is an abbreviation of loka. Next follow the dates of the Kadab plates of A. D. 813,<sup>4</sup> and of the Dholpur stone inscription of A. D. 842,<sup>5</sup> which are expressed in word-numerals; and, in the next century, the plates issued by the Eastern Calukya Amma II. in A. D. 945.<sup>6</sup> In later times the epigraphic instances become more frequent, and the ancient palm-leaf MSS. of the Jainas,<sup>7</sup> as well as the later paper MSS., offer a good many. The notations of this kind have been caused sometimes by the vanity of the clerks and copyists, who wished to prove their acquaintance with the methods of the astronomers, and perhaps still more frequently by metrical reasons in the case of dates given in verse.

## B. - Numeral notation by letters.

Two systems of numeral notation, according to Burnell originally South-Indian, which both employ the phonetically arranged characters of the alphabet, have still to be described, as they are not without interest for paleography. In the first system, only the vowelless consonants have any importance, and their numeral values are:—

<sup>1</sup> According to BURNELL, in some modern inscriptions the word-numerals are placed in the usual order of the decimal figures.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A. Baeth, Insers. Sansk. du Cambodge, No. 5 ff.; Bergaigne-Baeth, Insers. Sansk. de Campa et du Cambodge, No. 22 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> IA. 21, 48, No. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> IA. 12, 11; declared to be suspicious by Fleet, Kanarese Dynasties, Bombay Gazetteer, i, ii, 399, note 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> ZDMG. 40, 42, verse 28; pointed out by Kielhorn. <sup>6</sup> IA. 7, 18.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Kielhorn, Report, 1880-81, No 58; Peterson, Third Rep., App. I, Nos. 1876, 251, 253, 256, 270, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Compare B.ESIP. 79; W.IS. 8, 160; IA. 4, 207.

The consonants are, however, not used by themselves, but for the formation of chronograms, containing any vowels and also compound consonants, of which the last element alone has numerical value. In the figures, resulting from those chronograms, the units invariably stand on the left, and the whole sum has to be turned round. An interesting instance of this notation, probably the most ancient hitherto discovered, occurs at the end of Sadgurusisya's commentary on the Sarvānukramaņī (MACDONELL, page 168), where the chronogram, according to Kielhorn's undoubtedly correct emendation, is:1 —

> 2 3 5 6 5 1 khago=ntyān=meṣam=āpa.

As the author himself adds, this has the value of 1,565,132. And this figure corresponds. as the author likewise says, to the number of the days elapsed since the beginning of the Kaliyuga, and yields the vernal equinox, 24th March, A. D. 1184, as the date of the completion of the work. The equinox is indicated also by the verbal meaning of the chronogram: -" (Coming) from the last (sign of the Zodiac), the sun reached Aries."

The second system to be considered,2 which is still used in Ceylon, Siam and Burma for the pagination of MSS., and according to Burnell formerly also [83] occurred in Southern India, utilises the Brahmanical Barakhadi (see page 2 above). According to Burnell, the Aksaras ka to la are equivalent to 1 to 34;  $k\bar{a}$  to  $l\bar{a} = 35$  to 68; ki to li = 69 to 102; and so on. But in the Pali MSS. of the Viennese Court Library from Burma, I find ka to kah = 1 to 12; kha to khah = 13 to 24; and so on: and in those from Ceylon, where the  $B\bar{a}r\bar{a}khad\bar{t}$ includes the vowels r,  $\bar{r}$ , l, and  $\bar{l}$ , ka to kah = 1 to 16, and kha to khah = 17 to 32, whereby a somewhat different employment of the Aksaras results.3 FAUSBOLL has kindly informed me that the last two methods alone (not that mentioned by BURNELL) are used in the Pali MSS. known to him. And he adds that, after the exhaustion of the whole Bārākhadī, the Ceylonese MSS. begin again with 2 ka, 2 kā, and so on, and further that the pagination of Siamese MSS. agrees exactly with those from Burma.

## THE EXTERNAL ARRANGEMENT OF INSCRIPTIONS AND MANUSCRIPTS.

§ 36. - The lines, grouping of words, interpunctuation, and other details.

#### A. - The lines.

Already in the earliest inscriptions incised on smoothed stones, the Hindus have tried to form regular straight lines and to make the upper ends of the Matrkas of equal height. Aśoka's masons, however, have rarely succeeded, even in the pillar edicts and in the rock edicts of Girnār, Dhauli and Jaugada, to keep the line in more than a few consecutive words, mostly those of one group (see below, under B). But in other documents of the same period, as in the Ghasundī stone inscription (see page 32 above), the later4 and still valid principle has been more carefully observed, according to which only the vowel-signs, the superscribed ra and similar additions may protrude above the upper line. This regularity probably has been attained by marking the upper line with chalk, as is still done, or by other mechanical appliances.

The lines of the MSS, are always very regular, even in the oldest specimens, such as the Dhammapada from Khotan, and probably have been made with the help of a ruler (see below, § 37, J). In the ancient palm-leaf MSS and in many later ones on paper, the ends of the lines are marked by vertical double strokes, running across the whole breadth of the leaves.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Compare Gurupūjākaumudī, 110. 2 B.ESIP. 80. 1 IA. 21, 49 f., No. 4.

<sup>\*</sup> Thus already in most of the inscriptions from the western caves, and at Amaravatī, Mathurā, &c.; compare the facsimiles in B.ASRWI. vols. 4 and 5; B.ASRSI. vol. I; EI. 2, 195 ff.; and others.

In the MSS., the lines always run horizontally, and from the top to the bottom; and this is also the case in most inscriptions. But there are a few inscriptions which have to be read from below.<sup>1</sup>

Vertical lines sometimes occur on coins, especially on those of the Kusanas and the Guptas.<sup>2</sup> The cause of the latter arrangement of the letters was probably the want of space.

## B. - The grouping of words.

[84] In addition to the still usual method of writing the words continuously without a break, up to the end of a line, of a verse, half-verse or other division, we find already in some of the oldest documents, such as certain Aśoka edicts,<sup>3</sup> instances of the separation of single words, or of groups of words which belong together, either according to their sense or according to the clerks' manner of reading. A similar grouping of the words occurs also in some prose inscriptions of the Andhras and the Western Kṣatrapas at Nāsik; compare Nos. 5, 11 A, B, and 13. In the carefully written metrical inscriptions of the later times, the Pādas or the half-verses occasionally are separated by blank spaces,<sup>4</sup> and each line contains a half verse or a verse.<sup>5</sup>

Similarly, in the Kharoṣṭhī Dhammapada from Khotan, each line contains one Gāthā, and the Pādas are divided off by blanks. In other old MSS., as the Bower MS., single words and groups of words are often written separately, apparently without any certain principle.

In inscriptions, the Mangala, especially when it is the word siddham, often stands by itself on the margin.<sup>6</sup>

## C. — Interpunctuation.7

Signs of interpunctuation are not found in the Kharoṣṭhī inscriptions. But the Dhammapada from Khotan offers at the end of each verse a circular mark, often made negligently, but resembling the modern cipher.<sup>8</sup> At the end of a Vagga appears a sign, which is found at the end of various inscriptions, e. g., F.GI (CII. 3), No. 71, plate 41 A, and which probably is intended to represent a lotus.

In connection with the Brāhmī, signs of interpanetnation occur since the earliest times, and the signs employed are the following:—

(1) A single vertical stroke (daṇḍa) is used (irregularly and sometimes wrongly) in some Aśoka edicts for the separation of single words or of groups. In later times it serves to separate prose from verse, or occurs at the end of portions of sentences, of half-verses or verses, and occasionally even marks the end of documents. In the inscriptions of the Eastern Calukyas the daṇḍa has occasionally a small horizontal top-bar; thus, T.

<sup>1</sup> WZKM. 5, 230 f.; add a lately discovered Kharosthi inscription from Swat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> J.RAS. 1889, pl. 1; Num. Chron., 1893, pls. 8-10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Thus in the pillar edicts (excepting Allahabad), and in Kalsī edicts I—XI (see facsimiles EI. 2, 524), and in Niglīva and Paderia.

<sup>4</sup> Compare, e. g, facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 50, pl. 31 B; Ajanta No. 4; Ghatotkaca inscription; &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Compare, e. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 1, 2, 6, pl. 4 A, and 10, pl. 5.

<sup>6</sup> Compare, e. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 6, pl. 4 A, and 15, pl. 9 A. Compare, B.ESIP, 82, § 3.
8 Compare facsimile in S. v. Oldenburg's Predvaritelnae zamjetkao Buddhiskoi rukopisi, napisannoi pismenami Kharosthi, St. Petersburg, 1897.

Kalsī edicts XII, XIII, 1; Sahasrām.

See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 21, line 16.
 See the same facsimile.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 80, pl. 44.

<sup>13</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 42, pl. 28.

<sup>14</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 38, pl. 24, line 35.

<sup>15</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 19, pl. 12 A. 16 See, e. g., facsimiles, IA. 12, 92; 13, 213.

- (2) A double vertical stroke, ||, appears in the Junnar inscriptions Nos. 24—29 after numerals, and once after the name of the donor. Later it occurs at the end of sentences, half-verses, verses, larger prose sections and documents. From the fifth century, a hook is often added to the top of the first stroke; thus, \(\Pi\). Or both strokes receive such additions; thus, \(\Pi\). Curves and hooks are added also to the foot of one of the strokes or of both. From the end of the 8th century, a bar is attached on the left, to the middle of the first stroke; thus, \(\Pi\). In the inscriptions of the Eastern Calukyas, bars stand at the top of the strokes; thus, \(\Pi\)T: and a Kalinga inscription has similarly \(\Pi\)T.
  - (3) A triple vertical stroke marks occasionally the end of inscriptions.10
- (4) A single short horizontal stroke, placed on the left below the first sign of the last line, marks in the Aśoka edicts of Dhauli and Jaugada the end of an edict. From the 2nd century B. C.<sup>11</sup> to the 7th century A. D., this sign, which is often curved or bears a hook at one of its ends, serves the same purposes as the single vertical stroke.<sup>12</sup>
- (5) A double horizontal stroke, often bent, appears from the 1st to the 8th century A. D. in the place of the double vertical.<sup>13</sup> The Kuṣana inscriptions and some later ones offer in its stead a double dot,<sup>14</sup> which looks exactly like a Visarga.
- (6) A double vertical, followed by a horizontal stroke, occasionally marks the end of inscriptions.  $^{15}$ 
  - (7) A crescent-like stroke, I, marks the ends of the Aśoka edicts at Kālsī, Nos. I-XI.
- (8) A crescent-like stroke with a bar in the middle,  $\Im$ , stands twice in Kuṣana inscriptions after the Mangala  $siddham.^{16}$

Besides, numeral figures alone occasionally mark the ends of verses, see, e. g., F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 1, 2, and similarly Mangala-symbols (see below, under D) stand at the end of inscriptions or of sections of the text, especially in ancient MSS., such as the Bower MS.

Finally, it is necessary to call attention to the frames surrounding the Aśoka edicts in the Girnār version, the Jaugada separate edicts, and the Dhauli separate edict No. I.

What the inscriptions teach us regarding the history of the Indian interpunctuation may be briefly summed up, as follows. During the earliest period up to the beginning of our era, only single strokes, either straight or curved, are used, and their use is rare. After the beginning of our era, we find more complicated signs. [85] But up to the 5th century their use remains irregular. From that time onwards, we have, especially in the Prasastis on stone, more regular systems of interpunctuation. And the Mandasor Prasasti of A. D. 473-74, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 18, plate 11, first proves the existence of the still valid principle, which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, Amaravatī, No. 28; IA. 6, 23, l. 9 (Kākusthavarman's copper-plate).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 17, pl. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 17, pl. 10, and 18, pl. 11.

<sup>4</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 26, pl. 16, l. 24; No. 33, pl. 21 B, l. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 17, pl. 10, 1 32, l. 38; No. 35, pl. 22. last line; Bower MSS., passim.

<sup>6</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, Nepal inscription No. 4, IA. 9, 168, last line.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, IA. 9, 100, last line.

8 See, e. g., facsimiles, IA. 12, 202, l. 1 ff.; 13, 68.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See facsimile, EI. 3, 128, last line. <sup>10</sup> See, e. g., facsimile, IA. 7, 79.

<sup>11</sup> In the Nanaghat inscription, B.ASRWI. 5, pl. 51, line 6, after vano.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> See, e g., faosimiles Näsik, No. 11 A, B, after sidham and siddha; F.GI (CII. 3), No. 1 (end); Nos. 3, pl. 2 B, 9, pl. 4 D, and 10, pl. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, EI. 1, 389, No. 14; F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 3, pl. 2 B, 40, pl. 26, 41, pl. 27, and 55, pl. 34; IA. 6, 17 (after adadita).

<sup>14</sup> El. 1, 395, Nos. 28, 29 (after dānam); F.GI (CII. 3), No. 38, pl. 24, 1, 35; No. 55, pl. 34 (end); IA. 5, 209 (end): in these and other cases the sign has been wrongly read as a Visarga.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, IA. 6, 76; EI. 3, 260.

requires one stroke after a half-verse and two strokes at the end of a verse. But up to the 8th century there are various copper-plates and stone inscriptions, especially from Southern India, without any interpunctuation. Its methodical development is due to the Brahmanical schoolmen. In the offices, interpunctuation apparently never became a favourite. As a comparison of the documents of one and the same dynasty easily shows, the degree of regularity with which the signs are used, depends not upon the age of the Sasanas, but on individual qualities of the writers, their learning and their carefulness.

## D. - Mangalas and ornamentation.

In accordance with the ancient Brahmanical maxim, which requires a Mangala, a benediction or an auspicious word, at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of a composition in order to insure its completion and preservation, sacred symbols of auspicious import are found at the beginning and the end of two Aśoka edicts2 and of many inscriptions of the next four centuries.3 The most common Mangala-symbols, employed in this way, are the well-known Svastika, the trident or the so-called Triratna symbol resting on the Dharmacakra, and the conventional representation of a Caitya tree.4 But there are also others, the names of which are as yet unknown. Once5 the Svastika appears after the word siddham.

In later times, we find also Mangala-symbols with greatly modified forms, partly in the texts at the end of larger sections and partly at the end of documents or literary works. A very common sign of this description is a large circle with a smaller one, or with one or several dots in the middle.6 This may be a conventional representation either of the Dharmacakra which is still distinctly visible in front of F.GI (CII. 3), No. 63, plate 39, A, or of the lotus, which likewise occurs. As a circle with a dot, O, corresponds to the ancient tha, other signs, closely resembling or identical with later forms of tha, are used as substitutes.7 And the modern MSS. finally offer the well-known &, which corresponds to one of the medieval forms of tha, but is now read cha.

Since the 5th century, we find also new symbols, consisting of highly ornamental forms of the ancient O of the word Om (plate IV, 6, XVIII; plate V, 47, IX), which latter is a great Mangala. They are used both at the beginning and at the end of inscriptions and occasionally even on the margin of copper-plates.8

Many of the sculptures, found in connection with stone inscriptions, appear to have the same meaning as the Mangala-symbols just mentioned. Of this kind are, e.g., several of the relievos above Bhagvānlāl's Nepāl inscriptions,9 such as the Sankhas (No. 3), the lotuses (Nos. 5, 15), the bull Nandi (Nos. 7, 12), the fish (No. 9), the sun-wheel and the stars (No. 10). It is however possible that the lotus of No. 15 may refer also to the donation of a silver lotus, the dedication of which the inscription records. Again, the sun-wheel and the stars of No. 10

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, IA, 6, 83; 7, 163; 8, 23; 10, 62—64, 164—171.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See the facsimile of the separate edicts of Jaugada.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles of the Sohgaura plate; of Bhājā Nos. 2, 3, 7; of Kuḍā Nos. 1, 6, 11, 15, 16, 20, 22, 24, 25; of Mahad; of Bedsa No. 3; of Karle Nos. 1-3, 5, 20; of Junnar Nos. 2-15, 17, 19; of Nasik Nos. 1, 11 A, B, 14, 21, 24, of Kanheri Nos. 2, 12, 13; EI. 2, 338, Stupa I, No. 358, and Bhagvanlal, Sixth Oriental Congress, 3, 2, 136 ff.

<sup>4</sup> On the non-sectarian national character of these symbols, see Bhagvanlal, loc. cit.; and El. 2, 312 ff.

<sup>5</sup> Nāsik No. 6.

<sup>6</sup> See, e. g., "The Bower MS.," pt. 1, pls. 3, 5; pt. 2, pl. 1 ff.; facsimiles, IA. 6, 17; 9, 138, No. 4, 17, 310; 19, 58; EI. 1, 10 ff. In the Siyadoni inscription, EI. 1, 173 ff., Visnu's Kaustubha seems to be used repeatedly; compare EI. 2, 124.

<sup>7</sup> Compare, c. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), No. 71 (end), IA. 6, 67, pl. 2, line 1 (wrongly read as 20); IA. 6, 192, pl. 2, line 10; EI. 1, 77 (end); 3, 273, line 39; 3, 306, Verawal image inscription (end).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, F.GI (CII. 3), Nos. 11, pl. 6 A (also p. 46, note 3), 20, pl. 12 B, 26, pl. 16, &c.; IA. 6, 32 (five times); EI. 3, 52 (end); "The Bower MS.," pt. 1, pl. 1; compare also Beruni, India, 1, 173 (SACHAU). 9 IA. 9, 163 ff.

may also be intended to indicate the wish, often expressed explicitly in words that the donation, to which the inscription refers, may last "as long as sun and stars endure."

Similar illustrations of the contents of the inscriptions and symbolical representations of the wishes¹ and of other matters expressed in them, are not rare. Corresponding engraving; on the copper-plates are less common. But on these the royal coat of arms is sometimes engraved below or by the side of the text, instead of on a separate seal, and the stone inscriptions, too, occasionally exhibit such devices.² Among the MSS, those of the Nepalese Buddhists and of the Jainas of Gujarāt are often richly ornamented and perfectly illustrated.³ Specimens of illuminated Brahmanical MSS, are, however, not wanting.

# E. — Corrections, omissions, and abbreviations.4

In the earliest inscriptions, as in the Aśoka edicts (see, e.g., Kālsī edict XII, line 31) erroneous passages [86] are simply scored out. Later, dots or short strokes above or below the line are used to indicate clerical errors. The same signs occur in MSS., where, however, in late times the delenda are covered with turmeric or a yellow paste. On the copper-plates, they are frequently beaten out with a hammer, and the corrections are then engraved on the smoothed spot. We possess even entire palimpsests of this kind.<sup>5</sup>

In the Aśoka edicts and other early inscriptions, letters and words, left out by mistake, are added above or below the line without any indication of the place to which they belong. or they are also entered in the interstices between the letters. In the later inscriptions and the MSS., the spot of the omission is indicated by a small upright or inclined cross, the so-called kākapada or hamsapada, and the addenda are given either in the margin or between the lines.

A Svastika is sometimes put instead of the cross.<sup>8</sup> In South-Indian MSS., the cross is used also to indicate intentional omissions, made in Sūtras with commentaries.<sup>9</sup> Elsewhere, intentional omissions, or such as have been caused by defects in the original of the copy, are marked by dots on the line or by short strokes above the line.<sup>10</sup> The modern sign for the elision of an initial A, the so-called Avagraha, has been traced first on the Baroda copper-plate of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Dhruva, dated A. D. 834-35.<sup>11</sup> A kuṇḍala, "ring," or a Svastika, served to mark unintelligible passages; see Kāshmīr Report, 71, and Kielhorn, Mahābhāsya, 2, 10, note.

In Western India, abbreviations are found first in an inscription of the Andhra king Siri-Pulumāyi (Nāsik, No. 15) of about A. D. 150, and in the nearly contemporaneous one of Sirisena- or Sakasena-Mādharīputa (Kanheri, No. 14). In the north-west, they are very common in the inscriptions of the Kusana period. The commonest instances are: — samva, sava, sam and sa for samvatsara; gri, gr or gi for grīsmāh or gimhānam; va for varsāh; he tor hemantah; pa for pakhe; and diva or di for divasa; and they are only found when the dates are expressed by figures. In this connection, they are used regularly in the later inscriptions and even in our days. But in these later times we find usually samvat, which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Thus, the wish for the duration of the grant is expressed by representations of the sun and moon.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See, e. g., B.ASRWI. No. 10, "Cave-temple Inscriptions," facsimile at p. 101, and Kielhorn's remarks, EI. 3, 307, coats of arms are found in facsimiles at IA. 6, 49 ff., 192, EI. 3, 14.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See, e. g., Weber, Verzeichn. d. Berlin Sank. und Prak. Hdschriften, 2, 3, pl. 2; Fifth Oriental Congress, 2, 2, 189 ff., pl. 2; Pal. Soc., Or. Ser., pls. 18, 31; Rājendralāl Mitra, Notices of Sansk. MSS. 3, pl. 1; compare also B.ESIP. 82, § 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Compare B ESIP. 83, § 5. 

<sup>5</sup> IA. 7, 251 (No. 47); 13, 84, note 20; EL 3, 41, note 6.

<sup>6</sup> See, e. g., Kalsī edict XIII, 2, line 11; thus also later, see, e. g., facsimile at EL 3, 314, line 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See, e. g., facsimiles, EI. 3, 52, pl. 2, line 1; EI. 3, 276, line 11.

<sup>\*</sup> Facsimile, IA. 6, 32, pl. 3.
\* Āpastamba Dharmasūtra², p. II (10).

<sup>10</sup> Compare, e. g., IA. 6, 19, note, line 33; 20, note, line 11; very common in Kashmir MSS.

<sup>11</sup> IA. 14, 193: compare Fleet, EI. 3, 329; and Kielhoen, EI. 4, 244, note 7.

sometimes even is inflected, before the dates of the years; but, before the dates of the month falling in the bright half,  $\dot{s}u$  or  $\dot{s}u$  di for  $\dot{s}uddha$ - or  $\dot{s}u\dot{k}la$ -pakṣa-dina, or in Kashmīr  $\dot{s}u$  or  $\dot{s}u$  ti (tithi), and before those falling in the dark half,  $\dot{s}u$  or  $\dot{v}u$  di for  $\dot{s}uhula$ - or  $\dot{v}uhula$ -pakṣa-dina, or in Kashmīr  $\dot{s}u$  ti.

From the 6th century, the inscriptions of Western India offer here and there abbreviations of other words, such as  $d\bar{u}$  for  $d\bar{u}taka$ , dv for  $dvit\bar{v}ya$ .

Later, especially since the 11th century, abbreviations of titles and the names of tribes, castes and so forth become very common. In the MSS, they are noticeable since the earliest times. Thus, the Khotan Dhammapada (Paris fragment) has, at the end of a Vagga, ga 30 for  $g\bar{a}th\bar{a} 30$ ; and in the Bower MS, plate II,  $\dot{s}lo$  for  $\dot{s}loka$  and  $p\bar{a}$  for  $p\bar{a}da$  often occur in connection with figures at the end of a section. In the inscriptions and MSS, of the 12th century we find with names, not with dates, the small circle or bindu, which is still used to indicate abbreviations;  $e.\ g.,\ z^\circ$  for !hakkura. The same sign is used in Prakrit MSS, to indicate the omission of one or several letters that can be easily supplied;  $e.\ g.,\ a^\circ tabhavam$  for attabhavam,  $di^\circ th\bar{a}$  for  $ditth\bar{a}$ .

#### F. - Pagination.

The Hindus number only the leaves (pattra), not the pages (pṛṣṭha), of their MSS.; and in the Dravidian districts the figure stands on the first page of each leaf, in all other parts of India on the second (sāṅkapṛṣṭha).<sup>5</sup> The same rule holds good in the case of copper-plates, the sheets of which sometimes (but rarely) are numbered.<sup>6</sup>

#### G. - Seals.

According to the law-books, all Sasanas [87] must bear the royal seal. Consequently, seals, welded to the plates or to the rings connecting the plates, or attached to them by pins, are found with the majority of the grants. They show the royal coat of arms (mostly the representation of an animal or of a deity), or, in addition to such emblems, a shorter or longer inscription, giving the name of the king or of the founder of the dynasty, or the whole pedigree, and sometimes merely an inscription.

# VIII. WRITING MATERIALS, LIBRARIES, AND WRITERS.

#### § 37. — Writing materials.9

#### A. - Birch-bark.

[88] The inner bark of the Bhūrja-tree (Baetula bhojpattr), which the Himālaya produces in great quantity, probably is alluded to already by Q. Curtius (see above, page 6) as a writing material used by the Hindus at the time of Alexander's invasion, and later it is frequently named as such in Northern Buddhist and Brahmanical Sanskrit works. 10 It is even called lehhana, "the writing material," and written documents go by the name of bhūrja. According to Berūnī, 11 pieces, one ell in length and one span in breadth, were prepared for use

- 1 According to a letter from KIELHORN.
- <sup>2</sup> IA. 7, 73, pl. 2, line 20; 13, 84, lines 37, 40; 15, 340, line 57.
- <sup>3</sup> See, e. g., IA. 6, 194 ff., No. 4 ff.; EI. 1, 317, line 9.
- \* Compare S. P. Pandit, Malavikāgnimitra², p. V, who, as also Burnell, makes di°thā stand for diththā; see also Pischel, Nachr. Gott. Gel. Ges., 1873, 206.
  - 5 On an apparent exception, see WZKM. 7, 261.
  - 6 Compare, e. g., B.ESIP. pl. 24; facsimiles at EI, 1, 1 ff.; 3, 156, 300.
  - 7 Jolly, Recht und Sitte, Grundriss, II, 8, 114.
- <sup>8</sup> See, e. g., the collections of seals in plates at B.ESIP. 106, and EI. 3, 104; 4, 244: see also F.GI (CII. 3), plates 30, 32, 33, 37, 48.
- Compare B.ESIP. 84—93; RAJENDRALAL MITRA, in Gough's Papers relating to the Collection and Preservation of Ancient Sanskrit MSS., p. 15 ff.; Führer, Zeitshrift f. Bibliothekswesen 1, 429 ff., 2, 41 ff.
  - 10 BRW., sub voce bhurja.
  - 11 India, 1, 171 (Sachau); the description seems to fit the Kharosthī Dhammapada from Khotan.

by rubbing them with oil and polishing them. The art of the preparation has however been lost in Kashmīr, when the introduction of paper during the Moghal period furnished a more convenient material. But a not inconsiderable number of old birch-bark MSS. still exist in the libraries of the Kashmīr Pandits. According to a statement made to me by Bhāū Dājī, birch-bark MSS. occur also in Orissa, and amulets, written on Bhūrja, are still used throghout all the Aryan districts of India. The use of the bhūrjapattra of course began in the north-west; but it seems to have spread in early times, as the copper-plates of Central, Eastern and Western India appear to have been cut according to the size of the Bhūrja, which in Kashmīr mostly corresponds to our quarto (Burnell). As stated in many classical Sanskrit works and by Berūnī, all letters were written on Bhūrja at least in Northern, Central, Eastern and Western India.

The oldest documents on Bhūrja, which have been found, are the Kharosthī Dhammapada from Khotan, and the inscribed "twists," tied up with threads, which Masson discovered in the Stūpas of Afghanistan (see above, page 18, and note 6). Next come the fragments from the Godfrey Collection and the Bower MS., the leaves of which have been cut according to the size of palm-leaves, and, like these, are pierced in the middle in order to pass a string through, intended to hold them together. Next in age is the Bakhshāli MS., and then follow after a considerable interval the birch-bark MSS. from Kashmīr in the libraries of Poona, London, Oxford, Vienna, Berlin, &c., none of which probably date earlier than the 15th century.

#### B. - Cotton cloth.

The use of well-beaten cotton cloth is mentioned by Nearchos (see above, page 6), and some metrical Smṛtis, as well as some inscriptions of the Andhra period, state that official and private documents were written on paṭa, paṭikā or kārpāsika paṭa. According to Burnell, and Rice (Mysore and Coorg Gazetteer, 1877, 1, 408), the Kanarese traders still use for their books of business a kind of cloth, called kadatam, which is covered with a paste of tamarind-seed and afterwards blackened with charcoal. The letters are written with chalk or steatite pencils, and the writing is white or black. In the Bṛhajjānakoṣa at Jesalmīr, I found a silk band with the list of the Jaina Sūtras, written with ink. Recently Peterson (Fifth Report, 113) has discovered at Aṇhilvāḍ Pāṭaṇ a MS., dated Vikrama-Saṃvat 1418 (A. D. 1361-62), which is written on cloth.

#### C. - Wooden boards.

The passage of the Vinayapitaka (see above, page 5), which forbids "the incising" of precepts for religious suicide, bears witness to a very early use of wooden boards or bamboo chips as writing materials. Equally, the Jātakas, and also later works, mention the writing board, used in the elementary schools. Chips of bamboo (śalākā), with the name of the bearers, served as passports for Buddhist monks (Burnouf, Introd. à l'histoire du Bouddhisme, 259, note). An inscription from the time of the Western Kṣatrapa Nahapāna<sup>5</sup> speaks of boards (phalaka) in the guildhall, on which agreements regarding loans were placarded, and Kātyāyana prescribes that plaints are to be entered on boards with pāṇḍulekha, i.e., with chalk. Daṇḍin narrates, in the Daśakumāracarita, that Apahāravarman wrote his declaration, addressed to the sleeping princess, on a varnished board. MSS. on varnished boards, which are common in Burma, have hitherto not been discovered in India proper; but there are indications that the Hindus, too, used boards for literary purposes. Winternitz informs me that the Bodleian

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Kashmir Report, J.BBRAS. 12, App., 29 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> RAJENDRALAL MITRA, Gough's Papers, 17; Kashmir Report, 29, note 2.

<sup>3</sup> J.ASB. 66, 225 ff; facsimiles in Hoernle's Bower MS.; WZKM. 5, 104.

<sup>4</sup> J. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, Grundriss, II, 8, 114; Nasik inscription No. 11, A, B, in B.ASRWI. 4, 104 f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Nāsik inscription No. 7, line 4, in B.ASRWI. 4, 102.

<sup>6</sup> B.ESIP. 87, note 2. 7 Dásakumāracarita, Ucchvāsa 2, towards the end.

Library possesses a MS. on wooden boards, which comes from Assam. [89] And Rajendralal Mitra asserts, in Gough's Papers, p. 18, that in the North-West Provinces poor people copy religious works with chalk on black boards.

#### D. - Leaves.

According to the canon of the Southern Buddhists (see above, page 5), leaves (panna) were in ancient times the most common writing material. Though the texts1 do not mention the plants which furnished these leaves, it is not doubtful that they came then, as in later times, chiefly from the large-leaved palm-trees, the  $t\bar{a}da$  or  $t\bar{a}la$  (Borassus flabelliformis) and the  $t\bar{a}d\bar{i}$  or tālī (Corypha umbraculifera, or C. taliera), which, originally indigenous in the Dekhan, are found at present even in the Panjab. The earliest witness2 for the general use of palm-leaves throughout the whole of India is Hiuen Tsiang (7th century). But we possess clear proof that they were used even in north-west India during much earlier times. The Horiuzi palm-leaf MS. certainly goes back to the 6th century, and some fragments in the recently discovered Godfrey Collection from Kashgar belong, as HOERNLE has shown on the paleographical evidence, at least to the 4th century, and are older than the Bower MS.3 Again, the bhūrjapattra leaves of the Bower MS. are cut according to the size of palm-leaves, and that is also the case with the Taxila copper-plate (see above, page 25), which certainly is not later than the 1st century A. D. As the coppersmith then chose a palm-leaf for his model, it follows that palm-leaves must have been commonly used for writing, even in the Panjab. A Buddhist tradition, preserved in the Life of Hiuen Tsiang,4 asserts that the Canon was written on palm-leaves at the first Council held immediately after Buddha's death. And the story regarding Samghabhadra's "dotted MS. of the Vinaya," published by TAKAKUSU in J.RAS. 1896, 436 f., shows that this tradition is at least two centuries older; one inference, which may be drawn from it, is, that about A.D. 400 the Buddhists believed palm-leaves to have been used for writing since immemorial times.

According to RAJENDRALAL MITRA,<sup>5</sup> the palm-leaves, to be used for writing, are first dried, next boiled or soaked in water, then again dried, and finally polished with stones or conch-shells and cut to the proper size. It agrees with this statement, that the leaves of the ancient MSS. from Nepāl and Western India frequently show traces of an artificial preparation. Their length varies between one and three feet, and their breadth between one and a quarter and four inches.<sup>6</sup> Against this, Burnell<sup>7</sup> asserts that the people of Southern India take no trouble with the preparation, and mostly even neglect to trim the leaves properly. The last assertion is not borne out by the appearance of the South-Indian MSS. known to me, though it is no doubt true of the leaves used by clerks and men of business in offices and for letters.

The Horiuzi MS., and the fragments in the Godfrey Collection, as well as the numerous palm-leaf MSS. of the 9th and later centuries from Nepāl, Bengal, Rājputāna, Gujarāt and the northern Dekhan, prove that since ancient times the palm-leaves were written on with ink all over Northern, Eastern, Central and Western India. Since the introduction of paper, they are no longer used in these districts, except in Bengal for MSS. of the Candīpātha.<sup>8</sup>

In the Dravidian districts and in Orissa, the letters were, and still are, incised with a stilus and afterwards blackened with soot or charcoal. The oldest MS., found in the south, dates according to Burnell's from A. D. 1428.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>, 7 ff., 120.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Siyuki, 2, 225 (BEAL).<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> J.ASB. 66, 225 ff.

Life of Huen Tsiang, 117 (Beal).

<sup>5</sup> See Rajendralal Mitra, in Gough's Papers, p. 17.

<sup>6</sup> See Gough's Papers, 102, and the measurements in Kielhorn's Report for 1880-81, and Peterson's Third Report.

<sup>7</sup> B.ESIP. 86. 8 RAJENDRALAL MITRA, Gough's Papers, 102.

B.ESIP, 87; further researches in Southern India will probably show that older MSS, exist.

All palm-leaf MSS. are pierced either with one hole, usually in the middle, more rarely, in specimens from Kashgar, on the left, or with two holes on the left and the right, through which strings (sūtra or śarayantraka) are passed in order to keep the leaves together.

In Southern India, raw palm-leaves were, and still are, commonly used for letters, for private and official documents, as well as in the indigenous schools. For the latter purpose they are also employed in Bengal.<sup>2</sup> According to ADAMS,<sup>3</sup> the pupils of the tolls write also with lamp-soot on the large Banānā and Sāl leaves.

## E. - Animal substances.

D'ALWIS<sup>4</sup> asserts that Buddhist works mention skins among the writing materials, but neglects to quote the passages. It is possible to infer from the passage of the Vāsavadattā, quoted above (page 82, § 34, B) that in Subandhu's time skins were used for writing. But the fact that leather is ritually impure makes the inference hazardous. And hitherto no MS. on leather has turned up in India, though pieces of leather from Kashgar, inscribed with Indian characters, are said to exist in the Petersburg collections. A blank piece of parchment [90] lay among the MSS. of the Jesalmīr Bṛhajjñānakośa.

Manuscripts on thin plates of ivory occur in Burma, and the British Museum possesses two specimens.<sup>5</sup>

#### F. - Metals.

The Jātakas<sup>6</sup> state repeatedly that the important family records of rich merchants, and verses and moral maxims, were engraved on gold plates, and Burnell<sup>7</sup> mentions that they were used for royal letters and for land-grants. A gold plate with a votive inscription in Kharosthī has been found in a Stūpa at Gāngu near the ruins of Taxila.<sup>8</sup> Specimens of small MSS. and official documents on silver likewise are preserved,<sup>9</sup> and among them is one from the ancient Stūpa at Bhaṭtiprolu. In the British Museum there are also MSS. on gilt and silver plated palm-leaves.

It is a matter of course that the precious metals were used only in rare and exceptional cases. But, as the exceedingly numerous finds prove, copper-plates ( $t\bar{a}mrapata$ ,  $t\bar{a}mrapata$ ,  $t\bar{a}mrapata$ ) were since ancient times the favourite material for engraving various kinds of documents which were intended to last, and especially land-grants, to the donees of which they served as title-deeds.

According to Fahian (about A. D. 400), the Buddhist monasteries possessed grants engraved on copper, the oldest of which dated from Buddha's time. Though this statement requires confirmation, the Sohgaura plate (see above, page 32) teaches us that during the Maurya period official decrees were committed to copper. Another Buddhist tradition, preserved by Hiuen Tsiang, asserts that Kaniska caused the sacred books to be engraved on sheets of copper. And a similar story, which Burnell declares to be untrustworthy, is told regarding Sāyaṇa's commentaries on the Vedas. But it is undeniable that copper has been used also for the preservation of literary works, as plates with such contents have been found at Tripatty, and specimens from Burma and Ceylon (some of which are gilt) are now in the British Museum. Photographs of quite modern copper-plates with lists of goods in Gurumukhī and Nāgarī, sent from Kashgar to St. Petersburg, have reached me through the kindness of S. von Oldenburg.

<sup>1</sup> Vasavadatta, 250 (HALL). 2 BURNELL, ESIP. 89, 93, RAJENDRALAL MITRA, Gough's Papers, 17.

Reports on Vernacular Education, 20, 98 (ed. Long).
 I. Pali T. Soc. 1883, 135 f.
 B.IS. III. 210 f.
 B.ESIP. 90, 93.
 C.ASR. 2, 129, pl. 59.

J. Pali T. Soc., 1883, 185 f.
 B.IS. III. 10 f.
 B.ESIP. 90, 93.
 C.ASE. 2, 129, pl. 50.
 B.ESIP. 87; Rea. Arch. Survey of India, New Imperial Series, No. 15, p. 13, and plate 6, No. 22; J. Pali
 T. Soc., 1883, p. 134 ff.

<sup>10</sup> Siyuki (Beal) 1, xxxviii.

<sup>12</sup> R. V. (MAX MULLER), I, XVII.

<sup>11</sup> See B.ESIP. 86. 18 J. Pali T. Soc., 1883, 136 ff.

As regards the technical preparation, the oldest tāmraśāsana known, the Sohgaura copper-plate (see above, page 32), has been cast in a mould of sand, into which the letters and the emblems above them had been previously scratched with a stilus or a pointed piece of wood. Hence both the letters and the emblems appear on the plate in relievo. All other copper-plates have been fashioned with the hammer, and many among them show distinct traces of the blows. Their thickness and size vary very considerably. Some are very thin sheets, which could be bent double and weigh only a few ounces; others are exceedingly massive and are eight or nine pounds in weight or even heavier.1 Their size is partly determined by the nature of the writing material commonly used in the districts where they were issued, and partly by the extent of the document to be engraved, the size of the clerk's writing, and so forth. The smiths always imitated the originals given them. If these were written on palm-leaves, the plates were made narrow and long. If the material was birch-bark, the plates became much broader, often almost square. Of the first description are all the copper-plates from Southern India, with the exception of those of the Yadayas of Vijayanagara, which imitate stone stellae,2 To the second class belong all the Sasanas issued further north, with the exception of the Taxila plate, which, as stated already, is the size of a palm-leaf. A comparison of the numerous plates of the Valabhi kings shows very clearly how their size gradually grows with the increasing length of the Prasasti.

If, as is mostly the case, several plates were required for one document, they were usually connected by copper rings passed through round holes in the plates. The single ring is usually found in Sāsanas from Southern India, and then the hole is usually made in the left side of the plate. If there are two rings, the holes go through the lower part of the first plate, the upper part of the second, and so on alternately. The rings correspond to the threads which keep the palm-leaves together, and they make of many tāmraśāsanas small volumes,3 which can be opened quite conveniently. The lines run always, except in the Vijayanagara plates, [91] parallel to the broadest side of the plate. The letters have mostly been incised with a chisel, rarely with a graver (compare above, page 19). In order to protect the writing, the rims of the plates are usually thickened, and slightly raised,4 and the first side of the first plate, as well as the second side of the last, is left blank. The copper seals attached to the plates seem to have been cast, and their inscriptions and emblems are raised on a countersunk surface. According to Bāṇa,5 the state seal of king Harşa was made of gold.

Various copper statues show votive inscriptions on their bases. A single inscription on iron, that on the iron pillar of Meharauli, near Delhi, has become known. The British Museum possesses a Buddhist MS. on tin.

#### G. - Stone and brick.

Stones of the most various kinds, rough and artificially smoothed blocks of basalt or trap, as well as artistically carved columns of sandstone, or even prisms of crystal, have been since the most ancient times the most common materials for making documents, as Aśoka expresses himself, cirathitika, "such as to endure for a long time." And it is indifferent whether the documents are official or private, whether they contain royal proclamations, treaties between kings, or agreements between private individuals, grants and donations or poetical effusions. There are even some instances of the incision of larger literary works; large fragments of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Taxila plate weighs 3\frac{3}{4} ounces and was found bent double; the Alīnā plates of Sīlāditya VI. of Valabhī weigh together 17 pounds, 8\frac{3}{4} ounces, see F.GI (CII. 3), 172. But there are still heavier plates, see B.ESIP. 92, where however the historical notes require correction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B.ESIP. 92; compare the facsimiles at EI. 3, 26, 38, &c.

<sup>3</sup> The Kasākūdi grant (8th century) is written on eleven plates, the Hirahadagalli grant (4th century), EI. 1, 1 ff., on eight.

<sup>\*</sup> See Fleet, GI (CII. 3), 68, note 6.

F.GI (CII. 3), 139.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Harşacarita, 227 (Nirnayasagar Press ed.).

<sup>7</sup> See the list, J. Pali T. Soc. 1883, 134 ff.

plays by the Cāhamāna king Vigraha IV., and by his poet-laureate Somadeva, have been found at Ajmīr, and a large Jaina Sthalapurāṇa in a number of Sargas, impressions of which (unpublished) I owe to Führer and G. H. Ojha, exists in Bijholli (Rājputāna).

Bricks, showing single or a few letters, have been known for some time, as specimens have been found by Cunningham,<sup>2</sup> Führer and others in various parts of India, and even in Burma. But recently a set has been discovered in the North-West Provinces by Hoev, on which Buddhist Sütras are inscribed, the characters having apparently been scratched on the moist clay, before it was baked.<sup>3</sup>

#### H. - Paper.

During the period to which this work refers, paper was hardly known or at least little used in India, as its introduction is only due to the Muhammadans. Rājendralāl Mitra, however, asserts<sup>4</sup> that a "letter-writer" by king Bhoja of Dhārā proves its use in Mālva during the 11th century. The oldest paper MS. in Gujarāt is said to date from A. D. 1223-24.5

Paper MSS. dated Vikrama-Samvat 1384 and 1394 (A. D. 1327-28 and 1337-38), the leaves of which are cut according to the size of palm-leaves, have been discovered by Peterson at Anhilvad Paṭan.<sup>6</sup> It is very doubtful if any of the ancient MSS. from Kashgar, which are written on a peculiar paper, covered with a layer of gypsum, are of Indian origin; Hoebnle believes that all of them were written in Central Asia.<sup>7</sup>

#### I. - Ink.

The oldest undoubtedly Indian term for ink is masi or masi, frequently spelt masi or masi. The word, which occurs as a varia lectio already in a Grhyasūtra, is derived from the verb masi (himsāyām), and means etymologically "powder." Further, it serves to denote several kinds of pulverised charcoal, which were mixed with water, gum, sugar and so forth, and used for the preparation of ink. Burnell is mistaken when he asserts that in classical Sanskrit literature masi, "ink," occurs only in late works; it was known to Bāṇa (about A. D. 620) and to his predecessor Subandhu. 10

Benfey, Hincks and Weber have derived  $mel\bar{a}$ , another word for "ink," from the Greek  $\mu \hat{\iota} \lambda as$ . But it is, no doubt, the feminine  $(viz., mas\hat{\imath})$  of the common Prakrit adjective maila. "dirty, black," which cannot have been borrowed from the Greeks."  $Mel\bar{a}$ , likewise, was known to Subandhu, who uses the denominative  $mel\bar{a}nand\bar{a}yate$ , "becomes an inkstand." The Koṣas offer for "inkstand" also  $mel\bar{a}mand\bar{a}$ ,  $mel\bar{a}ndhu$ ,  $mel\bar{a}ndhuk\bar{a}$ , and  $mas\bar{\imath}man\bar{\imath}i$ , and the Purāṇas  $mas\bar{\imath}p\bar{a}tra$ ,  $mas\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}nda$  and  $mas\bar{\imath}k\bar{u}pik\bar{a}.$ 18

The statements of Nearchos and Q. Curtius (see above, page 6), according to which the Hindus wrote on cotton cloth and on the inner bark of trees, i. e., Bhūrja, make it very probable that they used ink already in the 4th century B. C. To the same conclusion points the fact, that in some letters of the Aśoka edicts dots are occasionally substituted for loops. The oldest specimen of writing with ink, on the relic-vase of the Stūpa [92] of Andher (see

<sup>1</sup> IA. 20, 201 ff. — [Now edited by Kielhorn in Göttinger Festschrift, 1901.]

<sup>2</sup> C.ASR. 1, 97; 5, 102. S Proc.ASB. 1896, 99 ff. Gough's Papers, 16.

<sup>5</sup> See my Catalogue of MSS, from Gujarat, &c., 1, 238, No. 147.
7 WZKM. 7, 261; J.ASB. 66, 215 ff., 258 f.
6 Fifth Report, 128, 125. 
8 BRW. and BW., sub voce maxi.

<sup>9</sup> Indian prescriptions for preparing ink are found in Rajendealal Mitea's notes, Gough's Papers, &c., 18 f.; Kashmīr Report, 30.

<sup>10</sup> See, e.g., Vasavadatta, 187 (HALL); Harsacarita, 95.

<sup>11</sup> See now also Zachariae, Nachrichten Gött. Ges. Wiss., 1893, 265 ff. 12 BRW., sub hac voce.

<sup>13</sup> Mandā and nandā, 'water-vessel' (compare also nandikā, nāndī, 'well,' and nāndīpaṭa, 'cover of a well'), are derived from nandayati and mandayati, 'to cause to rejoice, to refresh,'

<sup>14</sup> B.IS. III2, 61 f. 69,

above, page 5), is certainly not later than the 2nd century B.C. From the first centuries A.D. dates the Kharosthī Dbammapada from Khotan, as well as the twists of Bhūrja and the stone vessels with Kharosthī letters in ink from the Stūpas of Afghanistan. Somewhat later are the ancient Bhūrja and palm-leaf MSS. with Brāhma characters. Painted inscriptions occur still in the caves of Ajantā.<sup>1</sup>

Coloured ink, which in later times the Jainas especially have used extensively for their MSS.,<sup>2</sup> is mentioned also in Brahmanical works, e. g., in the sections of the Purāṇas on the donation of MSS.<sup>3</sup> Besides chalk (see above, page 82, § 34, B), red lead or minium (hingula) was used, already in ancient times, as a substitute for ink.<sup>4</sup>

## J. - Pens, pencils, &c.

The general name of "an instrument for writing" is *lekhani*, which of course includes the stilus, pencils, brushes, reed and wooden pens, and is found already in the epics.<sup>5</sup>

The varṇaka, mentioned in the Lalitavistara, no doubt refers to the little stick without a slit, with which the school-boys still draw the letters on the writing-board (see above, page 5). The Koṣas offer the variant varṇikā. The varṇavartikā, which occurs in the passage of the Daśakumāracarita referred to above (see page 93 above, and note 7), must be a brush or coloured pencil, as, according to other passages, the vartikā was used for drawing or painting. Tālt or tālikā probably denoted originally "a brush," though it is explained also by the modern salai, "graver," a stilus."

The most usual name of the reed pen is the word kalama, κάλαμος, Calamus, which occurs in all eastern languages; the rarer indigenous Indian name is iṣīkā or iṣikā, literally "reed." Pieces of reed, bamboo or wood, cut after the manner of our pens, are used in all parts of India where the use of ink prevails, and all the existing ancient MSS. on palm-leaves and Bhūrja probably have been written with such pens. The Sanskrit name of the stilus used in Southern India is śalākā, in Marāṭhī saļaī.

Regarding the now very generally used "ruler," a piece of wood or cardboard with strings fixed at equal distances, and regarding its probable predecessors, see Anecdota Oxoniensia, Aryan Series, 1, 3, 66, and Anzeiger d. W. Akademie, 1897, No. VIII, where photographs of two specimens have been given. According to a letter from C. Klemm (April 21, 1897), the Ethnological Museum of Berlin possesses two specimens, one from Calcutta with the inscription nivedanapattra and one from Madras called hidugu.

# § 38. — The preservation of manuscripts and copper-plates, and the treatment of letters.

#### A. — Manuscripts and libraries.

[93] Wooden covers, cut according to the size of the sheets, were placed on the Bhūrja and palm-leaves, which had been drawn on strings, and this is still the custom even with the paper MSS.<sup>11</sup> In Southern India the covers are mostly pierced by holes, through which the long strings are passed. The latter are wound round the covers and knotted. This procedure was usual already in early times<sup>12</sup> and was observed in the case of the old palm-leaf MSS.

- B.ASRWI. 4, plate 59.
- <sup>2</sup> See, e. g., the facsimiles in Rajendralal Mitra's Notices of Sanskrit MSS., 3, pl. 1.
- 3 Hemādri, Dānakhanda, 549 ff.
- 4 D'ALWIS, Introd. to Kaccayana, XVII; Jataka No. 509 (4, 489), pointed out by S. VON OLDENBURG.
- 5 See BRW. and BW., sub hac voce.
  - 6 See BRW. and BW., sub hac voce.
- <sup>7</sup> See Maheśvara on Amarakosa, p. 246, verse 33 (Bo. Gov. Ed.). 

  See BRW. and BW., sub hac voce.
- This is the case in all the parts of India known to me; compare also RAJENDRALAL MITEA, in Gough's Papers, 18.
  - 10 Anecdota Oxoniensia, Aryan Series, 1, 3, 66. 11 Berūni, India, 1, 171 (SACHAU).
  - 12 Compare Harsacarita, 95, where the suiravestanam of a MS. is mentioned.

from Western and Northern India. But in Nepāl the covers of particularly valuable MSS. sometimes are made of embossed metal; the MSS. (pustala) which have been prepared in this manner are usually wrapped up in dyed or even embroidered cloth. Only in the Jaina libraries the palm-leaf MSS. sometimes are kept in small sacks of white cotton cloth, which again are fitted into small boxes of white metal. The collections of MSS., which frequently are catalogued, and occasionally, in monasteries and in royal courts, are placed under librarians, generally are preserved in boxes of wood or cardboard. Only in Kashmīr, where in accordance with Muhammadan usage the MSS. are bound in leather, they are put on shelves, like our books.

The ancient Indian name of a library, bhāratībhāṇḍāgāra, "treasury of the goddess of speech." occurs frequently in Jaina works; more rarely the modern synonym, sarasvatībhāndāgāra. Such Bhandagaras were, and still are, found in temples, colleges (vidyamatha), monasteries (maiha, upāśraya, vihāra, sanghārāma),2 at the courts of princes and in the houses of many private individuals. The Purāṇas declare it to be the sacred duty of the wealthy to make donations of books to temples and so forth.3 Equally, such donations are obligatory on the Jaina and Bauddha laymen, and the Prasastis of the old MSS. prove that the obligation was fulfilled in the most liberal manner. A famous royal library of the middle ages was that of king Bhoja of Dhārā (11th century); on the conquest of Mālva, about A. D. 1140, Siddharāja-Jayasimha transferred it to Anhilvad, 4 there it seems to have been amalgamated with the court library of the Caulukyas, which is repeatedly mentioned in works of the 13th century. The bhāratībhāndāgāra of the Caulukya Vīsaladeva or Viśvamalla (A. D. 1242—1262) furnished, according to an unpublished Prasasti, the copy of the Naishadhīya, on which Vidyādhara wrote the first commentary of the poem, and the MS. of the Kāmasūtra, according to which Yaśodhara composed his Jayamangalāṭīkā. One of the manuscripts of the Rāmāyaṇa in the library of the University of Bonn has been derived from a copy of Visaladeva's collection.6

The search for Sanskrit MSS., instituted by the Government of India, has shown that there are still a good many royal libraries in India, and the catalogues of several, such as those of Alwar, Bīkāner, Jammu, Mysore, and Tanjore, has been published. The documents, published in connection with the search, have brought to light also a surprisingly large number of private libraries. And various notes in older Sanskrit works make it apparent that considerable private libraries existed in early times. Thus, Bāṇa (about A. D. 620) tells us that he kept a particular reader (pustaka-vācaka), whose manipulation of the MS. of the Vāyupurāṇa he describes in his Harṣacarita. Burnell's remarks, regarding the bad treatment of the MSS. by the Brahmans, do not hold good for the whole of India, perhaps not even for the whole of Southern India. In Gujarāt, Rājputāna and the Marāṭhā country, as well as in Northern and Central India, I have seen, besides some ill-kept collections, very carefully preserved libraries in the possession of Brahmans and Jaina monks. The treatment of the books usually depends only upon the worldly circumstances of the owner.

## B. - Copper-plates.

The way in which private individuals kept their copper-plate grants, seems to have been very peculiar. In many places, e. g., in the ruins of Valabhī, near the modern Valā, they have been found immured in the walls or even in the foundations of the houses of the owners. In

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the remarks on donations of MSS. in inscriptions; e. g., Inscriptions du Cambodge, 80, 81; Hultzsch, SII. 1, 154.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare the remark in a Valabhi inscription of A. D. 568 (IA. 7, 67) regarding a donation in order to enable the monks of the Bauddha monastery of Dudda to buy MSS. (pustakopakraya) of the saddharma.

<sup>3</sup> Hemadri, Danakhanda, 544 ff. Compare D. Leben des J.-M. Hemacandra, D.WA. 183, 231.

<sup>5</sup> Hemsdri, Danashands, 534 h.
6 Wirtz, die westl. Bec. des Ramayana, 17 f.

Nirnayasagar edition, 95.

<sup>9</sup> Compare RAJENDRALAL MITRA, in Gough's Papers, 21.

many other cases [94] the grants have turned up in those fields to the donation of which they refer, often hidden in small caches constructed of bricks.

The finders or poor owners often sell or pledge plates to the Vāṇiās, and this custom explains why they frequently come into the hands of European collectors at great distances from the places of issue. The originals of the grants, according to which the plates were prepared, probably remained in the royal Daftar, the keeper of which, the akṣapaṭalika, is trequently mentioned.<sup>1</sup>

#### C. — The treatment of letters.

The Jātakas already mention the custom of wrapping up important letters in white cloth and sealing the packet.<sup>2</sup> At present, official or ceremonial letters often are sent in bags of silk or brocade. In the case of ordinary letters on palm-leaves, the proceeding is simpler; the leaves are folded, their ends are split and joined, and the whole is tied up with a thread.<sup>3</sup> It is probable that letters on Bhūrja were treated similarly. According to Bāṇa,<sup>4</sup> the postal runner (dīrghādhvaga, lekhahūraka) tied each separately to a strip of cloth and wound this round his head.

## § 39. - Writers, engravers, and stone-masons.

Though the oldest Indian alphabet is a creation of the Brahmanical schoolmen (see above, page 17), and though the instruction in writing has remained even in recent times chiefly in the hands of Brahmans, there are yet indications that professional writers, and perhaps even castes of professional writers, existed already at an early period. The oldest name of these men is lekhaka, used in the canon of the Southern Buddhists and the epics (see above, page 5). In the Sānci inscription, Stūpa I, No. 143,5 it is clearly used to designate the profession of the donor; it may, however, be doubted if it means, as I have translated it, "copyist of MSS." or "writer, clerk." In various later inscriptions,6 lekhaka undoubtedly denotes the person who prepared the documents to be incised on copper or stone. But in the present day a lekhak is always a man who copies MSS., and this profession is usually the resource of poor Brahmans, and sometimes of worn-out clerks (Kāyasths, Kārkūns). Such men were, and are, employed also by the Jainas. But many Jaina MSS. have been copied, as their Praśastis show, by monks or novices, and even by nuns. Similarly, we find, among the copyists of the Bauddha MSS. from Nepāl, Bhikṣus, Vajrācāryas and so forth.7

Another name of the professional writers, which was used already in the 4th century B. C., is the word lipikara or libikara, discussed above, page 5. In the Koṣas³ it is given as a synonym of lekhaka, and in the Vāsavadattā³ it means "writer" in general. Aśoka uses it in the 14th rock edict as a designation of his clerks. Similarly, Paḍa, who copied the Siddāpura edicts, calls himself lipikara, and in the Sāñcī inscription, Stūpa I, No. 49,¹¹ the donor Subāhita-Gotiputa takes the higher title rājalipikara, "a writer of the king." In the earlier times, lipikara probably was an equivalent for "clerk."

In a number of Valabhī inscriptions of the 7th and 8th centuries, the writer of the documents, who is usually "the minister for alliances and war" (sandhizigrahādhikrta),

<sup>1</sup> Opmpare Stein's translation of the Rajatarangini, V, 249, 397, and notes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> B.IS. III<sup>2</sup>.S; FAUSBOLL, Jätaka, 2, 173 f.

<sup>\*</sup> B.ESIP, 89.

<sup>4</sup> Harşacarita, 58, 167.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> EI. 2, 369, 372.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Compare, e. q., the Pallava grant, El. 1, 1 ff. (end); F. GI (CII. 3), No. 18 (end), No. 80 (end), and Fleet's remarks in the Index under lekhaka.

Kashmir Report, 33; Rajendralal Mitra, in Gough's Papers, 22; Kielhorn's and Peterson's Reports on the Search for Sanskrit MSS., passim; and Bendall's Catalogue of Sanskrit Buddhist MSS. from Nepal, passim.

See, e. g., Amarakosa, 183, verse 15; Bombay Government edition.

<sup>9</sup> HALL's edition, 239.

<sup>10</sup> EI, 2, 102.

receives the title divirapati or divirapati, and the simple word divira occurs even earlier in a Central-Indian inscription of A. D. 521-22. Divira or divira is the Persian debir, "writer," which probably became domesticated in Western India during the time of the Sassanians, when [95] the trade and intercourse between Persia and India was greatly developed. Divira appears also in the Rājatarangiṇī, and in other Kashmirian works of the 11th and 12th centuries. Kṣemendra's Lokaprakāśa mentions even various sub-divisions, gañjadivira, "bazaarwriters," grāna-divira, "village-writers," nagara-divira, "town-writers," and khavāsadivira (?).

The two works just mentioned, as well as other contemporaneous ones, designate the writers also by the term  $k\bar{u}yastha$ , which first occurs in the Yājāavalkya-Smṛti, 1, 335, and even at present is common in Northern and Eastern India. The Kāyasthas, however, form a strictly separate caste, which, though according to the Brahmanical account it is mixed with Sūdra blood, yet claims a high rank,<sup>3</sup> and in reality frequently has possessed a great political influence. In the inscriptions, the Kāyasthas occur since the 8th century, first in the Kaṇasva inscription of A. D. 738-39 from Rājputāna.<sup>4</sup>

Other designations of the writers in the inscriptions are karaṇa, karaṇika or more rarely karaṇin, kāsanika and dharmalekhin. Karaṇa is perhaps only a synonym of kāyastha, o as the law-books mention the Karaṇas as one of the mixed castes. The other terms, among which karaṇika has to be rendered, according to Kielhorn, by "writer of legal documents (karaṇa)," appear to be merely official titles without any reference to caste. The development of the Indian alphabets, and the invention of new forms of the letters, no doubt is due partly to the Brahmans and the Jaina and Bauddha monks, but much more to the professional writers and to the writer castes. The opinion, according to which the modifications have been introduced by the stone-masons and the engravers of the copper-plates, is less probable, because these persons were not suited for such work by their education and their occupation. 11

As the remarks at the end of many inscriptions show, it was customary to make over a Praśasti or Kāvya, which was to be incised on stone, to a professional writer, who prepared a fair copy, and to set the mason (sūtradhāra, śilākūṭa, rūpakāra, śilpin) to work according to the latter. This custom was observed also in a case which fell under my personal observation. The mason received a sheet with the fair copy of the document (the Praśasti of a temple) exactly of the size of a stone on which it was to be incised. He first drew the letters on the stone under the supervision of a Pandit, and then incised them. In some exceptional cases, the authors of the poems assert that they have done the work of the masons, and in others the masons say that they have made the fair copies of the inscriptions.

The statements regarding the preparation of the copper-plate Sasanas are less accurate and explicit. Usually, the inscriptions mention only the person who drew up or wrote the document. And they mostly name as such either a high official (amātya, sāndhivigrahika,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> F.GI (CII. 3), 122, line 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> IA. 6, 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> COLEBBOOKE, Essays, 2, 161, 169 (COWELL); regarding the Kayastha-Prabhus in Bombay, see Bombay Gazetteer, 13, 1, 87 ff.

<sup>4</sup> IA. 19, 55; later, the Kayasthas occur very often in Gujarat, IA. 6, 192, No. 1 ff., and in Kalinga, EI. 3, 224.

<sup>5</sup> Yājnavalkya, 1, 72; Vaijayantī, 73, 17; 137, 23; compare BRW. under karana, 3b.

<sup>6</sup> Compare, e. g., EI. 1, 81, 129, 166; IA. 16, 175; 18, 12.

<sup>7</sup> Harşacarita, 227 (Nirnayasagar ed.); IA. 12, 121. 8 IA. 20, 315. 9 IA. 16, 208.

<sup>10</sup> Compare the compound karanakayastha, IA. 17, 13; BENDALL, Cat. Skt. Buddh. MSS., 70, No. 1364.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> B.ASRWI. 4, 79 f.; B.IS. III.<sup>2</sup>, 40, note; IA. 12, 190.

<sup>12</sup> Compare, e. g., EI. 1, 45, author, Ratnasimha; copyist, Kṣatriya-Kumārapāla; stone-mason, rūpakāra Sāmpula: EI. 1, 49; author, Devagaṇa; writer and mason as above: EI. 1, 81; author, Nehila; copyist, Karaṇika Gauḍa Takṣāditya; mason, Somanātha, taṅkaviyāānasātin, "expert in the art of incising (letters)": also, analogous remarks in EI. 1, 129, 139, 211, 279, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This is stated by the poet Kubja in Eice's unpublished Talgund Prasasti—[now edited by Eice, EC. 7, Sk, 176, and by Kielhorn, El. 8, 31];— and by Divakarapandita in the Afijaneri inscription, IA. 12, 127.

<sup>14</sup> Compare IA. 11, 103, 107; 17, 140.

rahasika) or a general (senāpati, balādhikrta). Occasionally, they assert that the drafting was done by a stone-mason, a sūtradhāra¹ or tvasṭā,² who, however, in reality merely engraved the grant. According to Kalhaṇa,³ the Kashmirian kings kept a special official for this work; he bore the title patṭopādhyāya, "the teacher (charged with the preparation) of title-deeds," and belonged to the aksapaṭala office, which Stein believes to be the Accountant-General's Office, while I take it to be the Record Office or Court of Rolls (Daftar).

The Sāsanas name only rarely, and in late times, the person by whom the plates were engraved (uthīrṇa, unmīlita). The engravers mentioned are various artisans, a pītalahāra, lohakāra or ayaskāra, i. e., the Kansār or coppersmith of the present day, a sūtradhāra, sutone-mason, a hemakāra or sunara (probably equivalent to soṇāra), goldsmith, a sīlpin or vijāānīka, an artisan. In the Kalinga Sāsanas, we find in their stead an aksasālin, ākṣaśālika, akhasālin, or akhasāle, whereby a member of the goldsmith caste, now called Aksāle, is meant.

Finally, the existence of manuals for clerks and writers must be mentioned. We still possess several works of this kind, among which the Lekhapañcāśikā gives the rules for drafting not only private letters, but also land-grants and the treaties between kings, while a section of Kṣemendra-Vyāsadāsa's Lokaprakāśa shows how the various kinds of bonds, bills of exchange (hundī) and so forth ought to be done.<sup>11</sup>

#### CONCLUDING REMARKS.

[96] Dr. W. Cartellier, whose name appears at the bottom of the Plates, is responsible for the drawing and tracing of the letters for which no cuttings from facsimiles were available, as well as for the arrangement and the retouche of the cuttings, except in the case of plates VII—IX, which were finished by a young lithographer, Mr. Bohm. I have also to acknowledge Dr. Cartellieri's assistance in the selection of the signs, which in a few cases he has made independently, and in others has been influenced by a revision of my proposals; and I have to thank him for various ingenious remarks on the Indian alphabets, as well as for a collection of the variants in the Aśoka edicts.

If I have been able to illustrate most of the Indian alphabets by cuttings from facsimiles, instead of by hand-drawn signs, I owe this chiefly to my friend Dr. J. Burgess, who during many years has kindly furnished me with separate copies of his excellent reproductions of Indian inscriptions. Some other donors of facsimiles or photographs, Dr. E. Hultzsch, Professor E. Leumann, and Dr. S. von Oldenburg, have already been mentioned in the notes.

5 IA. 15, 360.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> IA. 19, 248, J.BBRAS, 13, 4,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> EI. 3, 158, 250, where it is said that the trasta Viranacarya wrote the grants of Acyutaraya and Venkataraya, as well as that of Sadasivaraya dated A. D. 1556.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Rājatarangiņī, V, 397 f. (STEIN).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> EI. 4, 170, IA. 17, 227, 280, 283. <sup>6</sup> EI. 3, 314; IA. 18, 17. <sup>7</sup> IA. 17, 234.

<sup>8</sup> IA. 16, 208; the lohakāra Kāke is likewise called vīnāvī, i. e. vijāānika, IA 17, 230.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> TA. 13, 123; 18, 145; EI. 3, 19, 213, and the correction of the translation (p. 21) at the end of the volume.

10 BAINES, Imperial Capsus, Report 2, 8, where the Abelian of Madagaran and the correction of the translation (p. 21) at the end of the volume.

<sup>10</sup> BAINES, Imperial Census Report, 2, 8, where the Aksales of Madras are mentioned. They are found, however, also in the Kanarese districts of the Bombay Presidency.

<sup>11</sup> BHANDABKAB, Report on the Search for Sanskrit MSS., 1882-83, 38; Kashmir Report, 75; regarding letter-writers see also Rajendralal Mitra, in Gough's Papers, 16, 133, and Burnell, in ESIP, 89.

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